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This grammar text was prepared especially for advanced students of English in the Somali Republic. The material consists for the most part of explanations and exercises in English generative--transformational grammar. Chapters treat the following aspects of English grammar: (1) the phrase structure of simple sentences; (2) the English noun phrase; (3) relative clauses; (4) nominalizations and modification; (5) verb inflection, pronunciation and spelling; and (6) the English verb phrase formatives. An introductory section explains and reviews elementary grammatical terminology. All material in the text appears in English only. (AMM)

ED030845

ADVANCED ENGLISH

INFLECTION + MODAL + PERFECT + PROGRESSIVE + PASSIVE + VERB

PRE-ARTICLE + ARTICLE + DEMONSTRATIVE + NUMBER

TREL: X + NP + Y → NP + WHO(M) + X + Y

S → NP + VP

J. D. PALMER

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MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

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ADVANCED ENGLISH

LESSONS IN GRAMMAR

by

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AL 001 697

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

This excellent book has been developed for use particularly in the last two years of intermediate school, in secondary school, and as a reference grammar for teachers. I strongly recommended its use as a supplementary aid in the teaching of English and I request that headmasters do their best to facilitate its use in the English classes.

I highly congratulate the NTEC staff on this fine work and urge them to continue in this important area of materials development. It is my hope that research of this type will continue and that effective means of evaluating materials be carried on in the schools in Somalia.

H. E. ADAN ISSAK AHMED
Minister of Education

Ministry of Education
Mogadiscio, Somali Republic

FOREWORD

This book was written while I was English advisor to the National Teacher Education Center at Afgoi in the Somali Republic (1966-68). It was written because there existed no materials specifically for teaching English to Somalis. No contrastive analyses of Somali and English had been made up to that time.

The material in this book consists for the most part of explanations and exercises in English generative-transformational grammar. Although the surface structure of English is different from that of Somali in outstanding ways, more important to the student than these easily-observed differences are the regularities of English phrase-structure. Many things that we say in English simply cannot be understood by translating directly into Somali. So, the material of the book is arranged to cause the student to understand and to be able to use English even though the Somali analogue to each English grammar-point will generally interfere with his learning English.

The plan of the book follows a logical explanation of English. However, the number of exercises and drills varies according to the practical experience that my colleague Rod Fraser and I had in attempting to cure Somalis of their English language ills.

I am indebted to Lado and Fries' *English Sentence Patterns*, Paul Roberts' *English Syntax*, former colleagues and students at The English Language Institute of the University of Michigan, and the National Teacher Education Center's classes of 1967 and 1968 for their help and encouragement, but especially to Roderick Fraser, A.B., M.A., Assistant Professor, Somali Project, Eastern Michigan University, without whom little would have got done.

JOE PALMER
Mogadiscio
June, 1968

HOW TO USE THIS BOOK

Talk about the examples and explanations of each section in class.

Talk about the examples and how they exemplify the grammar-point of each section.

Put the examples on the board.

Let the students tell the teacher the point of the lesson. *Then do the exercises aloud in class!*

At the next class meeting have the students read the exercises aloud. Have them read singly and together.

Correct the students' pronunciation and spelling.

Do as many exercises as you can each day!

If the students do not prepare the exercises correctly, they need extra work. Do oral drills in class. Prepare pattern practices and exercises for each section. Substitute items in each sentence of the exercise. For example,

I gave Yusuf your pencil. Whose pencil did you give Yusuf?

Substitute words in the sentence beginning with *whose*.

Whose pencil did you give Yusuf?

1. Abdi: Whose pencil did you give *Abdi?*
2. Pen: Whose *pen* did you give Abdi?
3. Amina: Whose pen did you give *Amina?*
4. Ruler: Whose *ruler* did you give Amina?
5. Book: Whose *book* did you give Amina?
6. He: Whose book did *he* give Amina?
7. Her: Whose book did he give *her?*
8. Seat: Whose *seat* did he give her?

ETC.

Then do an oral substitution exercise based on the second sentence in the exercise. For example:

Whose friend did you see?

1. Father: Whose *father* did you see?
2. Meet: Whose father did you *meet?*
3. Brother: Whose *brother* did you meet?

ETC.

Continue until all the students can do the oral exercise. Then go back and rewrite the exercise.

HOW TO TEACH THE EXAMPLES OF EACH SECTION IN CLASS

1. Put an *old* example and a *new* example together on the board. An old example is something the students already understand.
2. Let the students explain the differences between them.
3. Practice orally, using exercises in the book.

For example,

Write on the board

My class is big. Is my class big?

Read the examples aloud several times. We call this an ATTENTION POINTER. Let the students explain the differences

(The first is a statement; the second a question. The word-order is different; the intonation is the same).

IF any of the students don't understand, start again like this:

Write on the board

	My	class	is	big.
Is	my	class		big?

Read the examples aloud several times

This time, translate the examples into Somali. Discuss the differences between the English examples and Somali.

Then practice orally, using the exercises in the book. Or, you can make up simple exercises using vocabulary which your students understand at their level.

ADVANCED ENGLISH: LESSONS IN GRAMMAR

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This book was set in ten-point Bodoni by Sergio Cordanti. Typography was done by Sandro Evangelisti at the State Printing House in Mogadiscio, Somali Republic.

ADVANCED ENGLISH

INTRODUCTION

The formation of the sentence:

ELEMENTARY GRAMMATICAL TERMINOLOGY

1. An English sentence has two parts: the subject and the predicate.

2. The subject of a sentence is a noun phrase.
   A noun is a word like *man, Abdi, pencil, Somalia.*
   A phrase is a word or group of words.
   A man is a noun phrase.
   My friend Abdi is a noun phrase.
   An old pencil is a a noun phrase.

3. The first part of a sentence is the subject.
   The subject of a sentence is a noun phrase.
   What is the subject of a sentence?

4. What are the two parts of a sentence?

5. What is a phrase?

6. What is the subject of this sentence?
   My brother is eating.

7. Is the subject of this sentence a noun phrase?
   My brother is eating.

8. The predicate of a sentence is all of the sentence except the subject.

9. What do we call a word or a group of words that functions as a subject or predicate?

10. Is the subject of a sentence the predicate?

11. In this sentence which phrase is the subject?
    My brother is eating.

12. In this sentence which phrase is the predicate?
    My brother is eating.

13. What is a phrase?

14. What are the two parts of a sentence?

15. Is the subject of a sentence a noun phrase?

16. Is the predicate of a sentence a phrase?

17. The predicate of a sentence is a verb phrase.

18. What is the predicate of a sentence?

19. A verb is a word like *eats, running, is, says, seems.*
    My brother *eats* rice.
    My brother *is running* to school.
    My brother *is* happy.
    My brother *says* hello every day.

20. What kind of word is *eats?*

21. What kind of word is *is?*

22. What kind of phrase is the subject of a sentence?

23. What kind of phrase is the predicate of a sentence?

24. We can say something in English using only one word in the verb phrase and one word in the subject. For example:
    I eat.

25. What is the verb in this sentence?
    I eat.

26. But we usually use more than one word in the verb phrase.
    I *eat bananas.*

27. What is the verb phrase of this sentence?
    I eat bananas.

28. What is the subject of this sentence?
    I eat bananas.

29. Is there always a verb in a sentence?

30. Does a sentence always have a subject?

31. BECOMES means «changes into».

32. The form of a verb sometimes changes.
I eat. BECOMES He eats.

33. *I eat* changes to *He eats,* when the subject «I» changes to «He».

34. When the subject «I» BECOMES «He», what does ***eat*** change to?

35. We call the change in the verb «inflection». When we inflect the verb we change its form. We add letters or take away letters in spelling. We add sounds or take away sounds in speaking.

36. When do we change the form of a verb?

37. How do we inflect a verb?

38. We inflect a verb to agree with the number and person of the subject or with the tense of the sentence.

39. Why do we inflect a verb?

40. The number of the subject is singular or plural.

41. How many people does the subject of each of these sentences refer to?
I like bananas.
Abdi likes bananas.

42. *I* and *Abdi* are called singular subjects.

43. If you are one person, *you* is a singular subject.

44. *I* is the first person.

45. You is the second person, because *I* speak to *you.*

46. ***He,*** **or** ***Abdi,*** **is the third person, because I talk to you** about Abdi.

47. *I* talk to *you* about *Abdi.* How many people are **involved** in this?

48. I + you BECOMES we.

49. You + you BECOMES you.

50. He + he + she + she BECOMES they.
He + he BECOMES ?

51. *We* is the first person plural.
I + you BECOMES we.

52. *You* can be the second person plural.
You + you BECOMES you.

53. *They* is the third person plural.
He + He BECOMES they.

54. What is the second person singular?

55. What is the third person singular?

56. What is the first person plural?

57. We inflect the verb to agree with the number of the subject in this way:
If the subject is I
You (singular)
You (plural)
We (inclusive or exclusive)
they,
we add ZERO to the verb.

58. So, we say I eat.
you eat. (singular)
you eat. (plural)
we eat. (inclusive or exclusive)
they eat.
(We have only one word meaning *we* in English).
(And we have only one word meaning *you* in English).

59. Eat + ZERO BECOMES eat.
(ZERO = nothing)

60. But if the subject is He
She
It
Abdi
Amina
The dog, we add (S).

61. So, we say He eats.
She eats.
It eats.
Abdi eats.
Amina eats.
The dog eats.

62. Eat + (S) BECOMES eats.

63. How many words for *we* do we have in English?

64. How many words for *you* do we have in English?

65. Write the correct form of *eat* after each subject.

I . . . . bananas.
You . . . . . bananas.
He . . . . . . bananas.
She . . . . . bananas.
It . . . . bananas.
We . . . . . . bananas.
You . . . . . bananas.
They . . . . . bananas.
Abdi . . . . . bananas.
Amina . . . . bananas.
The dog . . . bananas.

66. What are the two parts of a sentence?

67. What is the subject of a sentence?

68. What is the predicate of a sentence?

69. These subject words are nouns or pronouns.
Abdi is a noun.
He is a pronoun.

70. *He* replaces *Abdi*. For example,
Abdi eats bananas. BECOMES He eats bananas.
(Pronouns replace nouns).

71. What replaces a noun?

72. People's names are nouns.

73. What are *Abdi, Amina, Ali,* and *Lula?*

74. Names of things are nouns.

75. What are *pencil, desk, teacher,* and *class?*

76. Noun phrases are used as the subjects of sentences.

Examples:

A. *My pencil* is on the desk.
B. *My desk* is over there.
C. *Her teacher* is Amina.
D. *The class* meets tomorrow.

77. What are the subjects of the above sentences?

78. What are the predicates of the above sentences?

79. The predicate of a sentence is what kind of phrase?

80. A verb phrase is
A. A verb
or
B. A verb + a noun phrase
or
C. A verb + an adjective phrase
or
D. A verb + an adverbial phrase.

81. The predicates of these sentences are only verbs:

A. I *am eating.*
B. My brother *is eating.*
C. My mother *cooks.*
D. Abdi *studies.*
E. Amina *cleans.*

82. What are the predicates of the above sentences?

83. The predicates of these sentences are verbs + noun phrases:
The noun phrases in the predicates tell *what.*

A. I am eating *bananas.*
B. My brother is eating *my lunch.*
C. My mother cooks *dinner.*
D. Abdi studies his *English lesson.*
E. Amina cleans the *house.*

84. What are the predicates of the above sentences?

85. The predicates of these sentences are verbs + adjective phrases. The adjective phrases in the predicates tell about the subjects.

A. I am *very old.*

B. Abdi seems *healthy.*

C. Amina is *rather pretty.*

E. My mother became *angry.*

86. What are predicates of the above sentences?

87. The predicates of these sentences are verbs + adverbial phrases. The adverbial phrases in the predicates tell *how, why, where,* or *when.*

A. I sleep *well.*

B. I am eating *too fast.*

C. My mother cooks *very well.*

D. Abdi studies *hard.*

E. Amina cleans *thoroughly.*

88. What are the predicates of the above sentences?

89. Adjectives are words like *old, healthy, handsome, calm,* and *angry.* They tell how the subject *is* or *seems* or *appears.*

90. Adjectives can follow this subject and verb: Abdi is.....

91. Adjectives can follow the word *very.*

92. Adverbs are words like *well, fast, hard, thoroughly,* and *cleverly.* They tell how, why, where, and when someone does something.

93. Adverbs usually follow verb phrases.

94. These adverbial phrases tell *why* someone does something.

A. .... in order to get his money.

B. .... for her money.

C. .... because he wanted his money.

D. .... because of his money.

E. .... to get his money.

95. Put the above adverbial phrases in these sentences:

A. Abdi came ....
B. Amina came .....
C. Ali came ....
D. Mohamed came ....
E. Omer came ....

96. These adverbial phrases tell *when* someone does something.

A. .... in the morning.
B. .... when I get finished with my lessons.
C. .... at night.
D. .... before breakfast.
E. .... after class is over.

97. Put the above adverbial phrases in these sentences:

A. I study ....
B. I'll see you ....
C. Amina sleeps ....
D. Abdi studies ....
E. Abdi works ....

98. These adverbial phrases tell *where* someone does something.

A. .... in the house.
B. .... under his desk.
C. .... at school.
D. .... in Mogadiscio.
E. .... on the highway.

99. Put the above adverbial phrases in these sentences:

A. I stay ....
B. Abdi sleeps ....
C. We study ....
D. He lives ....
E. The accident happened ....

100. Sometimes a verb phrase is a verb + noun phrase + an adverbial phrase.

For example:

I eat bananas in the morning.

101. What is the noun phrase in the above verb phrase?

102. What is the adverbial phrase in the above verb phrase?

103. What are the whole predicates of these sentences?

A. Amina studies her lessons as often as she can.

B. Ali likes to go to Hargeisa each summer.

C. Abdi told me to tell you to go to school.

104. Sometimes a verb phrase is a verb (+ a noun phrase) + several adverbial phrases.

105. Parentheses mean «plus or minus». Parentheses mean that the occurrence of the item is optional. It may or may not occur.

106. A sentence can be Subject: Ali
+
Verb. studied
+
(what) noun phrase: his lessons
+
(how) adverbial phrase: hard
+
(why) adverbial phrase: to try to pass the examination
+
(where) adverbial phrase: at school
+
(when) adverbial phrase: the next day

ALI STUDIED HIS LESSONS HARD TO TRY TO PASS THE EXAMINATION AT SCHOOL THE NEXT DAY.

CHAPTER ONE

THE PHRASE-STRUCTURE OF SIMPLE SENTENCES

1. A verb phrase is a verb + (a noun phrase) + (an adverbial phrase) + (an adjective phrase)

2. Some verb phrases have verbs which are forms of the word BE. For example,

   I *am* rich.

   You *are* my friend.

   He *is* sorry.

   We *are* students.

   They *were* here yesterday.

   I *was* his friend.

   Sentences like these have falling intonation. The speaker's voice falls at the end of the sentence.

3. What are the different forms of the word BE?

4. Some verb phrases have verbs which are very different from the forms of BE. For example,

   Amina *studies* hard.

   Ali *walk*s to school every day.

   Abdi *likes* bananas.

   Mohamed *goes* to Aden every summer.

   Sentences like these have falling intonation.

5. There are two kinds of verbs — forms of BE and other verbs.

6. When we ask a question with a form of BE, we do it this way:

A	B	C —» B	A	C ?
My class	is	big. —» Is	my class	big?

—» means becomes.

My father is a sailor. —» Is my father a sailor?

Our voices usually fall at the end of sentences like these.

Change each of these sentences with BE into a question.

1. My answer is correct. —»
2. His brother is my friend.
3. They are cold.
4. This lesson is interesting.
5. She is my sister.
6. She's his cousin.
7. He's my uncle.
8. It is too late to go.
9. It's already dark.
10. He was my teacher.
11. He is her father.
12. He's Ali's brother.
13. Abdi is happy.
14. Abdi's tired.
15. We are hungry.
16. We're cold.
17. You are correct.
18. You're a doctor.
19. They are nurses.
20. They're students.
21. Ali is right here.
22. Ali's right.
23. They are big classes.
24. I'm a musician.
25. You're a singer.
26. We are the teachers.
27. He's intelligent.
28. My food is warm.
29. Ali was tired.
30. We were busy last night.
31. Amina was sorry.
32. They were sorry.
33. I was confused.
34. They're back.
35. He's a dresser.
36. You're a smart fellow.
37. The principal was right.
38. Study is necessary.
39. Diligence was mandatory.
40. Pencils are useful

41. Combs are convenient tools.

42. I'm busy.

43. You are busy.

44. You are my friend.

45. I am his brother.

46. Ali was happy.

7. Note the *contractions:*

I am —» I'm ....
You are —» You're ....
He is —» He's ....
She is —» She's
We are —» We're
They are —» They're ....

Learn to pronounce these contractions.

8. Write a substitution drill using these words:
Is Ali here? —»

1. Amina: —» *Is Amina here?*
2. was: *Was Amina here?*
3. happy: *Was Amina happy?*
4. is: *Is Amina happy?*
5. Ali: *Is Ali happy?*
6. you: *Are you happy?*
7. he: *Is he happy?*
8. a student: *Is he a student?*
9. happy: *(continue)*
10. old:
11. she:
12. was:
13. they:
14. intelligent:
15. here:
16. he:
17. we:
18. he:
19. I:
20. you:
21. they:
22. cold:
23. Are:
24. I:
25. he:
26. you:

9. Write a substitution drill using these words. On the right side of the page write the corresponding question:

Use contractions whenever you can.

Ali is sleepy.

1. a student: —» Ali's a student. —» Is Ali a student?
2. was:
3. here:
4. there:
5. in class:
6. Amina:
7. is:
8. from Mogadiscio:
9. Ali:
10. homesick:
11. tired:
12. sorry:
13. a student:
14. eighteen years old:
15. busy:
16. right:
17. a good student:
18. he:
19. we:
20. they:
21. I:
22. discouraged:
23. very proud:
24. in class:
25. he:
26. was:

Does your voice fall at the end of the sentence?

Be sure to have good pronunciation of all the sentences in this book. Practice the exercises aloud. One student can read a statement, a second student can read the corresponding question. Or one student can read the substitution item; a second can read the correct statement or question. Other students can listen to make certain that the exercise is correct. You can do these exercises after school, at night, in the morning, or before school. You can do them any time. Be sure to read *aloud*. Listen to yourself.

10. A negative sentence is a rewrite of an ordinary sentence.

We change the verb phrase to include the negative word (not). For example:

Ali is a student. —» Ali is not a student.

The forms of Be + (not) are I am not —» I'm not......

You are not —» You aren't ......

He is not —» He isn't .....

We were not —» We weren't .....

I was not —» I wasn't .....

A contraction is a pronunciation-spelling of a word.

What are the contractions of the following?

I am not

You are not

I was not

He is not

We were not

11. Change the following affirmative sentences to negative sentences. Contract BE + (not). Then read them aloud

1. You are from Burao. —»
   You aren't from Burao.
2. He was my teacher.
3. Abdi was a soldier.
4. Amina is my friend.
5. She was friendly.
6. He is tired.
7. The students are intelligent.
8. Ali is from Brava.
9. Mohamed is a teacher.
10. Mohamoud is interesting.
11. The class is interesting.
12. Dahir is interested.
13. The exercises are bad.
14. The notebook is too small.
15. The textbook is scientific.
16. My teacher was patient
17. Ali's father is kind.
18. My work is bad.
19. Our country is modern.
20. Jama was negligent.
21. Jama is from Ethiopia.
22. We are homesick.
23. The exercise is necessary.
24. He is twenty-three years old.
25. Ahmed was on time.
26. We are hard workers.

12. When we ask a question in English, we expect the person who answers us *not* to repeat the whole question.

For example:

Question		Short Answer
Is + he + a student?	——»	Yes, + he + is.
Is he a student?	————»	Yes, he is.

The word *student* is not in the answer.

It is very important to answer questions this way.

Another example:

Question		Short Answer
Are + you + tired?	——»	Yes, + I + am.
Are you tired?	—————»	Yes, I am.

The word *tired* is not in the answer.

Every English speaker expects you *not* to repeat complements when you answer him.

13. Answer the following questions with the word *yes* .....

1. Are you a student? —» Yes....
2 Is he here?
3. Are we students?
4. Were they at school?
5 Was I on time?
6. Am I right?

14. The answer to a question is often negative. When we answer *no*, we must put the negative word (not) at the end of the verb phrase.

For example:

Are you a student? —» No, I'm not.

Is he ready? ————» No, he isn't.

15. Answer the following questions with *no*.

1. Is he here? —» No, ...
2. Are you late?
3. Am I the one?
4. Were they at the meeting?
5. Was she your teacher?
6. Are Ali and Ahmed on time?

16. Answer only the questions with *yes* or *no.*

1. Is Amina ready? —» Yes, she is.
2. Are you from Johar?
3. The class is ready.
4. Is Ali from Hargeisa?
5. Mohamed is from Balad.
6. Are you interested?
7. This lesson is interesting.
8. Is this lesson interesting?
9. Is Amina happy?
10. Are they bored?
11. Are they boring?
12. Is Abdi used to smoking?
13. Are the students accustomed to studying?
14. The weather is warm.
15. Are you interested in learning English?
16. Jama is interested in algebra.
17. Is Ismail used to hot weather?
18. Are you tired of studying?
19. Is this lesson too long?
20. Is English grammar interesting?
21. This is a written exercise.
22. Is this an oral exercise?
23. Are you studying?
24. Is Ali writing his lesson?
25. Were you a student at Magistrale?
26. Mohamoud is successful.

17. Sometimes when we are surprised, disappointed, or confused we ask a negative question. We form a negative question like this:

Jama is a teacher —» Jama isn't a teacher. —» Isn't Jama a teacher?

Similarly, for example:

Abdi is tired. —» Abdi isn't tired. —» Isn't Abdi tired?

Negative questions usually have rising intonation.

18. Make negative questions of these sentences. Be sure your voice rises in tone at the end of the negative question.

1. It is twelve o'clock. —» Isn't it twelve o'clock?
2. The spelling is correct.
3. You are late.
4. They are his brothers.
5. The answer is right.
6. I am a good student. Am I not a good student? Or ain't I a good student? Or aren't I a good student? (The obvious form Amn't I is not used).

19. The meaning of a negative question is exactly the same as the meaning of an ordinary question. The answer to a negative question is exactly the same as the answer to an ordinary question.

For example:

Aren't you ready? means *Are you ready?* But, the person who asks *Aren't you ready?* is tired of waiting for you to get ready.

Similarly,

Isn't Ali your brother? means *Is Ali your brother?* But, the person who asks *Isn't Ali your brother?* thought that Ali *was* your brother and is surprised or disappointed to learn that Ali isn't your brother.

Also,

Isn't my answer right? means *Is my answer right?* But, the person who asks *Isn't my answer right?* feels very sorry for himself because his answer is incorrect. He wants to be reassured so that he will feel better. The answers to the negative questions are the same as the answers to ordinary questions. For example:

Aren't you ready? —» Yes, I am.
Are you ready? —» Yes, I am.
Aren't you ready? —» No, I'm not.
Are you ready? —» Yes, I am.

(What happens to NP2 or Adj.?)

20. Write *yes* answers to these questions.

1. Is he your brother? —» Yes, he is.
2. Isn't he your brother?
3. Isn't my answer right?
4. Is my answer right?
5. Are you ready?
6. Aren't you ready?
7. Isn't Ali from Baidoa?
8. Isn't it getting late?
9. Is it nine o'clock?
10. Isn't it September 1st?
11. Is it winter?
12. Aren't we on time?
13. Isn't our class late today?
14. Isn't it a long way to Italy?
15. Is Ali on the telephone?
16. Isn't it easy to learn English?
17. Aren't you surprised?
18. Isn't it warm today?
19. Aren't you her teacher?
20. Isn't this lesson easy?
21. Is this lesson difficult?
22. Were you born in Somalia?
23. Weren't you born in Kenya?
24. Weren't they told to be on time?
25. Was it begun on time?
26. Wasn't it finished last year?

21. When you answer a negative question you should ignore the (not) in the question. Explain to your teacher the difference between these two questions.

Are you my friend?

Aren't you my friend?

22. Change these statements to negative questions. Then write the answers to the questions.

For example:

She is a cook. —» Isn't she a cook? —» Yes, she is.

1. He is a good fellow. —»
2 Algebra is hard.
3. He was with your friends yesterday.
4 I am going to school.
5. I am writing my lesson.
6. Abdi is important.
7. My textbook is old.
8. Asha's book is new.
9. We are in Afgoi now.
10. You are too early.
11. He is doing his exercise.
12. We were in Hargeisa toghether yesterday.
13. The president is coming together yesterday.
14. We were riding in a car yesterday.
15. They are playing football.
16. Habiba was late for class last night.
17. It is too difficult for you to do.
18. It is eleven o'clock.
19. It was easy for him yesterday.
20. It is important to study hard.
21. It is necessary to learn well.
22. It was Sunday yesterday.
23. I was here last week.
24. It was warm last night.
25. It is hot here in the winter.
26. I was born in 1945.

23. We usually want people to agree with what we say. One way to find out whether people agree with us is to ask a question at the end of a statement. We call these questions at the ends of statements *tag questions.* We form tag questions like this:

For example:

Ali is a good student. —» Ali is a good student, isn't he?

Notice that the noun in the predicate becomes a pronoun in the tag question, and that this tag question has (not) in it.

To answer a tag question, *ignore* not.

Ali is a good student, isn't he? —» Yes, he is.
or —» No, he isn't.

Another form of *tag question* is a negative statement and a *tag question.*

Notice that the tag doesn't have (not) in it. For example:

Ali isn't a good student. —» Ali isn't a good student, is he?
(Ignore (not) in the statement).

The answer to this question is *Yes, he is,* or *No, he isn't.*

24. Answer these questions with Yes, ...

1. That's a new book, isn't it? —» Yes, ...
2. That isn't a new book, is it?
3. This is my class, isn't it?
4. This isn't my class, is it?
5. Those are your friends, aren't they?
6. Those aren't your friends, are they?
7. These were our rooms, weren't they?
8. These weren't our rooms, were they?
9. My chair is over there, isn't it?
10. My chair isn't over there, is it?
11. You are the leader, aren't you?
12. You aren't the leader, are you?

Notice that when you answer numbers 2, 4, 6, 8, 10 and 12 with *yes,* you are disagreeing with the person who asked the question.

Now answer the twelve questions above with No, ...

Notice that when you answer numbers 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, and 11 with *No,* you are disagreeing with the person who asked the question.

25. Whenever the statement is an ordinary, affirmative one, the tag question has (not) in it.

Whenever the statement has (not) in it, the tag question is an ordinary question. Add tag questions to these statements:

1. Abdi is an engineer, ...
2. My father was a lawyer, ...
3. Your uncles were teachers, ...
4. I am the winner, ...
5. You're the secretary, ...
6. You aren't going to quit, ...
7. I'm not your servant, ...
8. They weren't the first class, ...
9. My father wasn't in the army, ...
10. Abdi isn't a surveyor, ...
11. Amina was the headmistress, ...
12. Your friends weren't there, ...
13. Ali and Asha's parnts are old, ...
14. My and his friends are playing tennis, ...
15. Our school was the first to open last year, ...
16. We were studying when you arrived, ...
17. Amina's classmates were crying when she left, ...
18. He's a fool, ...
19. It's too bad, ...
20. It isn't right, ...

(Remember to read all the exercises aloud many times).

26. Now turn back to Section Number 22 and change each statement into a question by adding the appropriate tag question.

For example:

Number 1: He is a good fellow, *isn't he?*

Then answer the questions with *yes* or *no*. Read your responses aloud.

27. Now turn back to Section Number 11, and change each negative statement into a question by adding the appropriate tag question. For example:

Number 1: You are from Burao —» You aren't from Burao, are you?

Then answer the questions with *yes or no*. Read your responses aloud.

28. Whenever a verb phrase has a verb other than BE, a different set of rules governs the forms of the verb phrases and the entire sentence. These example do *not* have BE in them:

Amina *studies* hard all the time.

Ali *walks* to school every day.

Abdi *likes* bananas.

Mohamed *goes* to Aden every summer.

We call these words *verbs.*

29. When we ask a question with a VERB in the sentence, we do it this way:

Amina studies hard. —» Does Amina study hard?

(Do) is a function word that helps us ask questions with verbs. I has no meaning of its own here.

30. Change these statements to questions. For example:

Ali likes English. —» Does Ali like English?

1. Ali writes a letter every day. —» Does
2. We have tea at seven o'clock every day. —» Do
3. You study every night. —» Do
4. We work hard all the time.
5. Abdi eats bananas every day.
6. Bananas are healthful. (Be careful). —» Are .....
7. I'm busy.
8. Abdi speaks Swahili.
9. Jama knows the answer.
10. School starts tomorrow.
11. We eat breakfast at seven o'clock.
12. The final examination is tomorrow.
13. Jama arrives tomorrow.

14. This lesson is very interesting.
15. We understand this lesson.
16. Abdi comes from Hargeisa.
17. Abdi leaves for Hargeisa tomorrow.
18. I have my money.
19. That tea is hot.
20. Mohamed lives in Dormitory C.

31. Write a substitution drill using these words:
Ali likes coffee.

1. Amina:
2. tea:
3. hates:
4. Mohamed:
5. wants:
6. some money:
7. The students:
8. Our friends:
9. need:
10 to practice their English:

32. Change the sentences in Section 31 to questions.

33. Write a substitution drill using these words.
Does Abdi study every day?

1. Amina:
2. she:
3. he:
4. Ali:
5. work:
6. at night:
7. we:
8. the students:
9. our friends:
10. they:
11. every morning:
12. play:
13. go to school:
14. like to study:
15. you:
16. he:
17. my brother:
18. at night:
19. he:
20. we:

34. A negative sentence is a *rewrite* of an ordinary sentence. We change the verb phrase to include the word (not).

For example:

Ali eats rice every day. —» Ali does not eat rice every day.

Usually when speaking we contract (Do) + (inflection) + (not). So,

Ali does not eat rice every day. —» Ali doesn't eat rice every day.

If the subject of the sentence is one which takes a ZERO inflection then the contraction looks and sounds like this:

I do not like to read at night. —» I don't like read at night.

Pronounce *do not* — /dunat/.
Pronounce *don't* — /dount/.

35. Change these affirmative sentences to negative sentences. Example:

He walks to school every day. —» He doesn't walk to school every day.

1. I study every night. —»
2. You live with my friend.
3. Ali was the winner.
4. Amina knows my brother.
5. It seems cold today.
6. We like to play basketball.
7. Mohamoud understands the lesson.
8. They come from Merca.
9. It gets warm in the summertime.
10. We have our books.

36. Change the sentences in Section 30 to negative sentences.

For example:

Ali likes English. —» Ali doesn't like English.

37. Rewrite the substitution drill in Section 31, changing all the sentences to negative sentences. For example:

Ali doesn't like coffee.

(In number 6: some money —» any money).

38. When we answer a question with the words *yes* or *no*, we do *not* repeat the whole question. See Section 12. Whenever the question has a VERB in the verb phrase (but *no* form of BE) we answer it like this:

For example:

Does Asha like movies? —» Yes, she does.
or —» No, she doesn't.

We hardly ever say «Yes, she does like movies». It is very important to answer questions the short way. What happens to VERB when you give the short answer?

39. Answer these questions with the word *yes*. Then answer each of them with the word *no*. Example:

Do you like tea? —» Yes, I do. —» No, I don't.

1. Does school begin today? —»
2. Do you live in Dormitory A?
3. Does Ali go to town often?
4. Are these sentences easy to understand? —» *(Be careful)*.
5. Do you go to class in the evening?
6. Does it seem too warm in here?
7. Do you bring your pencil every day?
8. Is he writing a book?
9. Does Jama understand this exercise?
10. Do you eat lunch at school?

40. Answer the questions in Section 33, with *Yes* or *No*.

41. Answer the questions which follow. Be careful. Some of the following are not questions.

1. Do you work here? —»
2. This lesson is interesting.
3. Are my friends intelligent?
4. Does he like our class?
5. Do they come to class on time every day?
6. Does the class end at ten o'clock?
7. Are you busy?
8. Is he the teacher?
9. Is this school progressive?
10. My friends are good students.

11. Ali works every evening.
12. The students usually work all evening.
13. Do they prefer pasta?
14. Does Amina like Ali?
15. Does she understand him?
16. She likes him.
17. Do you understand this exercise?
18. Do your classmates understand it?
19. Do you come from Brava?
20. Is this the last item?

42. We frequently ask negative questions. See Section 17 for a discussion of the use of negative questions. When we have a VERB in the predicate we form the negative question in this manner:

Ali likes tea. —»
Does Ali like tea?
Doesn't Ali like tea?

The speaker's voice rises at the end of negative questions.

Doesn't Ali like tea? means that the speaker finds it unusual that Ali doesn't like tea, since most people *like* tea. Don't you think it unusual that Ali doesn't like tea? We expect you to think it unusual.

The following are some examples of negative questions and explanations of when they are used.

1. *Doesn't school begin tomorrow?* A person who asks this question thought that school begins tomorrow. He is surprised to learn that school begins on a day other than tomorrow.

2. *Don't you want to pass the test?* Of course, everyone wants to pass his examination. The person who asks this question is trying to cause the listener to study harder. He is implying that the listener does not study because he doesn't want to pass a test — which is improbable.

3. *Isn't this the science lab?* Something is wrong. The speaker has just discovered that he is in the wrong room. He thought he was in the science lab, but he has found that he isn't.

The answers to negative questions are grammatically the same as answers to ordinary, affirmative questions. Ignore the *(not)* in negative questions.

43. Write *yes* or *no* answers to these questions.

1. Don't you like peanuts? —»
2. Aren't you clever?
3. Isn't it time to go?
4. Doesn't she look pretty?
5. Aren't we lucky?
6. Don't you want to succeed?
7. Doesn't he study hard?
8. Aren't we going tomorrow?
9. Doesn't the class begin at three-thirty?
10. Isn't it cold today?
11. Don't you like your roommates?
12. Don't they want to stay here?
13. Doesn't Abdi seem peculiar today?
14. Doesn't it seem odd that he was the winner?
15. Don't they have a chance to pass the test?
16. Aren't you happy here?

44. We frequently imply that we don't believe what we have learned, or that we are confused, surprised, or disappointed, by raising our voices at the end of an ordinary question. When we do this,

Are you ready? (rising tone) means *You don't look ready.*

45. In order to get our listeners to agree with what we say, we frequently add a tag question to the end of a statement. See Section 23. If there is a VERB in the statement we form the tag question like this:

Amina studies hard. —» Amina studies hard, doesn't she? Or

Amina doesn't study hard. —» Amina doesn't study hard, does she?

To answer these questions, ignore (not).

Here are some examples of tag questions.

Abdi wants Ali's book, doesn't he?

Abdi doesn't want Ali's book, does he?

Abdi wanted Ali's book, didn't he?

Abdi didn't want Ali's book, did he?

Notice the past tense forms of the verb and (DO). Remember that tense is part of inflection. Tense is one of the ways we inflect the verb.

46. Add tag questions to the sentences in Section 30, Section 31, and Section 35.

47. Add tag questions to the following sentences and answer them with *yes* and *no*. For example,

It's warm today, *isn't it?* —» Yes, it is. —» No, it isn't.

1. It seems warm today,
2. Ahmed pronounces well,
3. We study every morning,
4. He doesn't like movies,
5. It rains every March,
6. It doesn't get hot in the summer,
7. Ali went to Mogadiscio,
8. Musa likes coffee,
9. We practiced our English,
10. He was late,
11. They had class at one o'clock,
12. He didn't eat lunch here,
13. The lessons are difficult,
14. Ali always prepares his lessons,
15. The classes are always interesting,
16. We usually win the games,
17. They aren't often on time,
18. Ahmed didn't usually attend all his classes,
19. He was sometimes late,
20. You come from Berbera,

48. Read the questions and answers in Section 47 and decide whether you are agreeing or disagreeing with the questioner in each case. See Section 23. For example,

It's warm today, isn't it? Yes, it is. (Agreeing)

It's warm today, isn't it? No, it isn't. (Disagreeing)

49. Whenever a question has the word HAVE in it, the yes/no answer may also have the word HAVE in it. If we say, for instance,

Have you brought your notebooks?

We answer this question by saying

Yes, we have.
or
No, we haven't.

That is, if the sentence contains the word HAVE and the past participle of the verb, the yes/no answer contains the word HAVE.

Here are some examples:

1. Has Abdi finished his homework? —» Yes, he has.
2. Have Amina and Asha gone to town? —» No, they haven't.
3. Has the director decided what to do? —» Yes, he has.

Notice that each of these sentences refers to *present time*.

We often use (have) + (-en) (past participle) + Verb to talk about a present situation that is influenced by something that happened in the past time. We call this kind of verb phrase a «perfect verb phrase».

Here is the formula for a perfect verb phrase:

VP —» (inflection) + (have + en) + verb.

(inflection) + have —» has

(en) + verb —» (for example:) eat —» eaten
buy —» bought
go —» gone
take —» taken
walk —» walked
practice —» practiced
study —» studied

Answer each of these questions with the appropriate yes/no response.

1. Have you ever eaten ice-cream? —»
2. Has Jama bought his yet?
3. Have you ever gone to Djibouti?
4. Has he taken his exams yet?
5. Have you ever walked to Mogadiscio from here?
6. Has Mohamed practiced his speech?
7. Have we studied this lesson before now?
8. Has Asha thought about teaching before now?
9. Has your class discussed the program yet?
10. Have your brothers left home yet?

50. Whenever we want to know whether a person possesses something or owns something, we frequently ask:
    1. Have you got a pencil?
    2. Have you got some paper?
    3. Have you got a comb?
    4. Have you got a desk?
    5. Have you got a watch?
    6. Has Ali got a razor blade?
    7. Has Asha got a typewriter?
    8. Has Amina got a record player?
    9. Have Mohamed and Dahir got their textbooks?
    10. Has Abdi got a bottle of ink?

Notice all these questions are ***present time.*** **The appropriate yes/no answers contain the word** *have.*

For example,

Has Mohamoud got an alarm clock? —» Yes, he has.

Answer all the above questions with *yes* and *no.*

51. Write a substitution drill using these words. Then answer each question with *yes* or *no*.

Has Asha got a pen?

1. Ali:
2. chair:
3. Mohamed:
4. he:
5. bed:
6. plate:
7. Amina:
8. she:
9. the boys:
10. they:
11. textbooks:
12. sheets:
13. blankets:
14. soap:
15. our friends:
16. my:
17. they:
18. notebooks:
19. meter sticks:
20. sugar:

52. Sometimes we ask questions which mean the same as the ones above using *have* as a verb with (DO). For example:

Do you have a match?

The appropriate answer is «Yes, I do». *or* No, I don't».

Change the questions in Section 50 to questions with (DO) and *have*. Then answer each with *yes* or *no*. For example,

Have you got a pencil? —» Do you have a pencil —» Yes, I do.

53. Use the words in Section 51 to write a substitution drill. Begin with «Does Asha have a pen?» Answer each question with *yes* or *no*.

54. We can make these questions with (have) and *have* negative. They become negative in ways similar to (BE) and (VERB) sentences. For instance,

Has Abdi finished his home work? —» Hasn't Abdi finished his homework?

Notice (have) + (not).

Have you ever eaten ice-cream? —» Haven't you ever eaten ice-cream?

Notice (have) + (not).

Have you got a pencil? —» Haven't you got a pencil?

Notice (have) + (not).

Do you have a match? —» Don't you have match?

Notice (DO) + (not). For information about when to use these negative questions reread Sections 17, 19 and 42.

55. Now rewrite the questions in Sections 49, 50, and 51, changing each of them to the negative.

56. We can also ask questions by changing statements to questions by adding tags to them. Whenever the statement has (have + en) in the VP, the tag question must also have (have) in it. Also, remember that if the statement is affirmative, then the tag must be negative, and vice-versa.

For example,

You have eaten ice-cream. —» You have eaten ice cream, haven't you?

Notice (have) + (not).

You have got a pencil. —» You have got a pencil, haven't you?
or
You haven't got a pencil. —» You haven't got a pencil, have you?

Notice (have).

But pay close attention to this pair:

You have a match. —» You have a match, haven't you?

You don't have a match. —» You don't have a match, do you?

In this last example (DO) appears in the tag, because *have* is the verb, and (DO) is, therefore, obligatory. Sometimes we put (DO) in the tag, even though there is no (DO) in the VP. We might say, for instance,

You have a match, don't you?

But this is considered by most educated speakers of English to be a careless way of speaking.

57. Sometimes in very careful speech and writing when we are trying to be very polite and official we use a special grammar with the verb *have*. We say, for instance,

Have we the facilities to offer this program?
or,
Has he the right to reject our offer?

Isn't this an unusual way to ask a question? What is the usual way to ask a question with a verb? (See Section 29).

In this special grammar with *have* the question is formed in this manner, for example:

You have the energy to study hard. —» Have you the energy to study hard?

Americans usually do not use this special form in a short sentence. They would not say, for example,

Have you a pencil?

But many people learn to use this kind of question because the style of it is very formal and polite. We usually say instead of the above example:

Have you got a pencil? or

Do you have a pencil?

58. Answer these questions to agree with the questioner or by saying *yes* .....

1. You haven't got a cold, have you?
2. Is he my uncle?
3. Do you think it is going to rain?
4. Were you ever in the Army?
5. It's too hot to work, isn't it?
6. Have you ever seen a meteor?
7. You were my teacher, weren't you?
8. Did Ali give you the ring?
9. I don't look like a thief, do I?
10. Has he the gall to say a thing like that?
11. Doesn't Abdi like beans?
12. Was I the first to congratulate you?
13. There are several things to do, aren't there?
14. There were seven people here, weren't there?
15. It's a long way to Burao, isn't it?
16. Ali went to Hargeisa, didn't he?
17. Asha wanted to pass the test, didn't she?

59. A verb phrase (VP) is a verb + a noun phrase + an adjectival phrase + an adverbial phrase. Another way to write this is:

VP —» (verb) + X
X —» (noun)
X —» (adj)
X —» (adv)
X —» (ZERO)

ZERO means nothing. The sign ZERO stands for a null set...... a place where nothing happens *and* the things which do not occupy that place.

So X can be a noun phrase, an adjective phrase, an adverbial phrase, or nothing, depending on the meaning of the verb in the VP and the way it is used.

Here are some simple sentences which illustrate the various possibilities in the VP.

S —» NP1 + VP. (NP *one* + VP)

A sentence is a noun phrase (subject) plus a verb phrase.

NP1 —» Ali.
VP —» (verb) + X.
(verb) —» study + (inflection)
Study + (inflection) —» studies
X —» ZERO
S —» Ali studies.

If you have the sentence «Ali studies». what kinds of questions can you ask about it?

First you can ask the questions we have been studying about:

Does Ali study?

Ali studies, doesn't he?

But there are two more questions you can ask about *Ali studies.* If you do not know *who* the NP represents, you can ask the question:

Who studies?

That is NP —» who.

Or if you don't know what Ali *does*, you can ask the question:

What does Ali do?

60. Change these simple sentences to questions with ***who*** **or** *what.* If NP1 is a *thing,* the question word is ***what.***

1. Abdi went to town. —» Who went to town?
2. Asha likes candy.
3. My friends study hard. —» **(who studies .....)**
4. Mohamed is my brother.
5. Elmi passed the test.
6. Our class is very small. ***(What* is very small?)**
7. My teacher works hard.
8. His brother is my friend.
9. Our cook makes bread.
10. We like to eat pasta. **(—» likes).**

In each sentence above, the answer to the question is the same as NP1. So the answer to question No. 1 is ***Abdi.***

Answer all the questions.

61. Notice that in *who* or *what* questions *are* —» *is* and *were* —» *was.*

For example,

They were sorry. —» Who was sorry?

We are hungry. —» Who is hungry?

Also, plural verbs become singular in *who* and *what* questions. That is, there is an obligatory (-s) inflection after *who* or *what* question words. For example,

We write notes. —» Who writes notes?

62. Rewrite these sentences as *what* questions. For example,

Ali is my brother. —» What is Ali?

1. His brother is my friend.
2. She is my cousin.
3. Asha was my teacher.
4. Ali was a doctor.
5. Abdi is a good student.

Answer the above questions with short answers.

63. Read Section 59 again.

VP —» (verb) + X.
X —» NP2.
NP2 —» (noun)
(noun) —» grammar.
(verb) —» studies.
NP1 —» Ali.
S —» Ali studies grammar.

If you don't know what Ali studies, you should ask the question to find out what he studies this way:

Ali studies grammar. —» What does Ali study?
The answer, of course, is NP2.

So if X —» noun (but not the name of a person) we ask a *what* question to learn NP2.

64. Write *what* questions to learn the NP2s of these statements.

For example,

Ali likes coffee. —» What does Ali like?

1. Asha writes songs every day.
2. We clean our room every day.
3. Our class has English at eight o'clock.

Answer the questions with short answers.

65. If X —» adverbial phrase, there are several question words we can use, depending upon which information we lack. Adverbial phrases tell *how, why, where*, or *when* These words are the question words we use to learn *how, why, where, or when* something happens.
Sometimes X or NP2 gives information about the duration of time, the distance between places, the number of objects, the quantity of material, or one (or more) of several we are interested in. If we want to have this information we use these question words:

duration of time ——» How long........ ?
distance between ——» How far .... ?
number of objects ——» How many ..... ?
quantity of material —» How much ...... ?
one of several ———» Which .... ?

Write question word questions for the following statements.

For example,

1. I sleep *well.* —» How
2. Abdi studies *hard.* —» How
3. *Abdi* studied hard. —» Who
4. We went to school *in the morning.* —» When
5. I am eating *too fast.* —» How
6. His mother cooks *very well.*
7. Amina cleans *thoroughly.*
8. Ali writes *cleverly.*
9. You sing *well.*
10. Jama was running *very fast.*
11. He came *yesterday.*
12. We work *in the evening.*
13. I slept *when I had finished my homework.*
14. Ali snores *at night.*
15. We always study *before breakfast.*
16. They frequently come *in the afternoon.*
17. We talked it over *after class.*
18. I'll see you *tomorrow.*
19. Abdi sleeps *in class.* —» Where
20. He lived *in this house.*
21. Ali put his books *under his desk.*
22. I live *in Mogadiscio.*
23. He was killed *on the highway.*
24. We went to the Ministry *in order to get our salaries.* —» Why .....
25. Asha goes to the Ministry *to get her salary.*
26. He came here *because I told him to.*
27. We worked *because of the money he gave us.*
28. Mohamed came to school *to learn.*
29. We had a conference *before class.*

30. I study *at school.*
31. I eat bananas *every morning.*
32. We usually study *hard.*
33. The accident happened *after the game.*
34. He lives *near the river.*
35. Abdi usually sleeps *soundly.*
36. I stay *with my relatives.*
37. Ali always sleeps *under his bed.*
38. I came in *because of the rain.*
39. We like our teacher *in spite of this faults.*
40. We learned this lesson *well.* —» How
41. We studied *for three months.* —» How long
42. Abdi lives *two kilometers* from the school.
43. We need *twelve textbooks.* —» How many
44. We need *seven kilos* of salt. —» How much
45. I want to buy *your* English book. —» Which
46. Abdi slept *twelve hours.*
47. They built the tea house *six kilometers* from town.
48. Ali bought *fifteen* grapefruit.
49. They bought *ten gallons* of milk.
50. I like *the black* horse.
51. We worked *for three months.*
52. Mogadiscio is *80 kilometers* from Merca.
53. I have *six brothers.*
54. He needs *twenty kilos* of sugar.
55. The teachers prefer *the most intelligent students.*
56. We lived in Merca *for two years.*
57. The students traveled *8000 miles to the United States.*
58. There are *twenty-five* students in our class.
59. Ali drank *two liters of water.*
60. I want to by *the best pants.*

66. The NP2 of many statements is frequently the name of a person or a pronoun referring to a person. For instance,

I remember *Mohamed Abdille Hassan.*

In such cases, the appropriate question word is *whom*, which we pronounce /hu/. For example,

I remember Mohamed Abdille Hassan. —» Whom do you remember?

Write WHOM questions for the following sentences.

1. I like *Amina.* —»
2. I hate *thieves.*
3. Ali fought *the bandits*
4. Asha saw *my brother.*
5. Mohamed played with *my children.*
6. The class appreciated *Ahmed.*
7. We respect *Osman.*
8. Osman visited our *classmates.*
9. Ahmed deceived *Asha.*
10. Sheikh Ahmed talked to *the students.*

67. Remember that if NP1 refers to a person, the appropriate question word is WHO. Rewrite the sentences in Section 66 as *who* questions. For example,

I remember Mohamed Abdille Hassan. —» Who remembers Mohamed Abdille Hassan? (s) is obligatory.

68. Write as many question word questions as you can about each of these sentences. For example,

Ali lives in Brava. —» Who lives in Brava?
—» Where does Ali live?

1. *Intelligent* means *smart.* —»
2. Asha studied a month ago.
3. Abdi eats rice in the dining room every day.
4. I visited my uncle in Burao.
5. Jama sees Ali every day.
6. Amina is a doctor.
7. Abdi studied grammar last year.
8. He knows my brother.
9. The teacher asked Mohamed last night.

10. We arrived a year ago.

Answer each of the questions.

69. When we add a certain class of adverbs to a VP, the position of the adverb changes according to whether the VP has (BE) or a (VERB) in it. For example,

My classes are *usually* interesting.

But,

My classes *usually* study hard.

Where do we put words like *usually*?

Words like *usually* are sometimes
frequently
always
often
never
seldom

These adverbs tell *how frequently.*

Which of these words give the sentences a negative meaning? Notice that you cannot put all these frequency words in this sentence:

I don't eat rice. —» I usually don't eat rice.
I sometimes don't eat rice.
I often don't eat rice.
I frequently don't eat rice.

But:

I don't eat rice. —» I never eat rice.
I seldom eat rice.
I always eat rice.

Notice the meanings of these frequency adverbs:

always sometimes never
often
frequently
usually

Can you put any of these words in these sentences?

Ali is my brother.

I am going to school now.

It was Monday yesterday.

You cannot put the frequency-adverbs in the above sentences because the frequency is already indicated in other ways.

70. Write the following sentences with all the frequency-adverbs inserted at the proper place in each.

sometimes	1. Abdi is hungry. —»
usually	2. We study at night.
frequently	3. We have tea at eight.
usually	4. Class begins at seven.
always	5. We eat at noon.
never	6. We are on time.
seldom	7. Ahmed is correct.

In questions NEVER —» EVER.

Change the above sentences to questions.

71. A sentence can contain several adverbial phrases. When a sentence contains many adverbial phrases we must decide the order to put them in. One rule is that the time-phrase (when) always comes last in the sentence.

For example,

We prepared our notes in the library *last night.*

Write sentences putting these sentence-elements together properly. This is a substitution exercise.

I lived here last year.

1. We:
2. there:
3. before our Independence:
4. Abdi:
5. in Brava:
6. after he finished school:
7. Asha's brother:
8. My friend:
9. in Aden:
10. in 1960:

72. Adverbs and adjectives are often similar in meaning, but the grammar of the sentences forces you to choose one or the other.

Compare the Xs in these VPs.

Abdi speaks *slowly.*

Abdi is a *slow* speaker.

Slowly tells how Abdi speaks. *Slow* tells what sort of speaker Abdi is. Both sentences mean the same, but the form of the adverb (slowly) is different from the form of the adjective (slow). In English we always obeserve this difference. Many adverbs of manner (how-adverbs) end in *-ly.* To form adverbs you can sometimes add *-ly* to an adjective.

Write the appropriate words in the blanks in this exercise.

For example,

Ali works carefully. —» Ali is a *careful* worker.

1. The students study quietly. —» They are .....
2. Asha answered intelligently. She is .....
3. Asha answered correctly. Her answer was .....
4. Asha answered correctly. It was a ..... answer.
5. Mohamed spoke carefully. He is a ..... speaker.
6. Asha arrived promptly. She was .....
7. Dahir arrives punctually. He is a ..... boy.
8. Our teacher speaks well. He is a ..... speaker.
9. Ali talks too fast. He is a ..... talker.
10. Ali works hard. He is a ..... worker.
11. He spoke sincerely. He was .....
12. Abdi shouts loudly all the time. He is .....
13. You answered acceptably. Your answers were .....
14. Ali can run fast. He is a ..... runner.
15. Amina teaches well. She's a ..... teacher.
16. He spoke respectfully. His speech was .....
17. He writes very formally. His letters are very .....
18. Ali whispers quietly to his friends. He is .....
19. Asha dresses colorfully. Her dresses are .....
20. She speaks beautifully. Her speech is .....

73. A special kind of sentence is the imperative, or request, sentence. It is the sentence we use to tell or ask someone to do something. We form the imperative by removing the NP1 and (inflection) from an ordinary sentence.

For example,

You speak English. —» Speak English!

Sometimes we punctuate imperatives with! The exclamation point (!) shows that we are shouting or speaking forcefully. Similarly,

Abdi is my friend. —» Be my friend.

This polite request has only a full stop at the end.

BE + (ZERO - inflection) —» BE.

Change the following to imperatives:

1. You speak Somali in class. —»
2. You sit quietly.
3. You are nice.
4. You open the window.
5. You go to the office.
6. You are on time.
7. You go to the Cinema.
8. You speak English all the time.
9. You open the window.
10. Ali closes the door.

74. We often insert a special adverb *please* before the verb in imperatives.

Rewrite the imperatives in Section 73 to include *please.*

For example,

Abdi is my friend. —» Please be my friend.

You speak English. —» Please speak English.

It is very important to say *please* when you want to be polite, or when you want people to like you.

75. Imperatives can also be negative if we want someone not to do something. To make an imperative sentence negative, we insert (DO) + (not) before the (verb).

For example,

Be angry. —» Don't be angry.

Please stay here. —» Please don't stay here.

Please speak Somali in English class. —» Please don't speak Somali in English class.

Touch that wire. —» Don't touch that wire!

Insert *Don't* in the imperatives in Section 73. Then write them with *Please don't.*

76. When we want to include ourselves in the group whom we are speaking to, we insert *let's* before the (verb) in an imperative. For example,

Stay here. —» Let's stay here.

Let's stay here means *Let us stay here.* That is, *I want you to stay here with me.* You + me —» us.

Insert *Let's* in the imperatives in Section 73.

For example,

Touch that wire —» Let's touch that wire.

Then write them with *Please let's.*

77. When we use the negative with *let's* in imperative sentences we usually do not insert (DO). For example,

Let's not go to the Cinema.

Let's not be late for school. *But sometimes we say:*

Don't let's speak Somali in class.

Don't let's pretend to understand.

Rewrite the imperatives in Section 73 to include *Let's not.* Then rewrite them to include *Please let's not.*

CHAPTER TWO

THE NOUN PHRASE

1. A noun phrase is a proper noun, or a determiner plus a noun, or an indefinite pronoun. That is,

proper noun
NP —» determiner + noun
indefinite pronoun

A proper noun is a specific, definite name which we always spell with an initial capital letter. For example,

Abdi, Mogadiscio, Ibrahim, Somalia

A determiner works to specify the noun. For example,

my mother

a man

that donkey

five people

several students

An indefinite pronoun is a word which stands for a non-specific person or thing. For exampie,

everybody

no one

anything

somebody

2. There are three kinds of nouns — proper nouns, common nouns, and personal pronouns. That is,

proper noun
Noun —» common noun
personal pronoun

Common nouns are words which occur with determiners. For instance,

the *ball*
his *shirt*
our *class*
that *student*

We always spell common nouns with lower-case letters, unless, of course, the noun is the first word of a sentence.

Personal pronouns never occur with determiners. Another way to say this, is that personal pronouns occur with ZERO determiners. ZERO means *nothing*.

3. Proper nouns are specific names. We always capitalize the initial letter when we spell a proper noun. Identify each of these as a proper noun. Be able to say sentences containing each of these proper nouns. For example,

I don't know who Longfellow was.
Can you tell me the location of Canada?

Renaissance
Hargeisa
Dr. Raj Rammuny
Negro
World War II
Byzantine Art
Christian Church
Mahler's Sixth Symphony
Exodus
Rome
Mother
German
Fallopian tubes
Pietà

What are the rules for capitalizing these examples?

4. Indefinite pronouns are useful when we talk about people or things or places which we cannot definitely specify. The way we

form the indefinite pronouns is to join *every, no, any,* or *some* with *body, one, thing,* or *where.*

$$\text{indefinite pronoun} \rightarrow \begin{matrix}(\text{every})\\(\text{no})\\(\text{any})\\(\text{some})\end{matrix} + \begin{matrix}(\text{body})\\(\text{one})\\(\text{thing})\\(\text{where})\end{matrix}$$

Parentheses, ( ), mean that the item is optional.

How many indefinite pronouns can you make? Complete all of them below. Only one of the indefinite pronouns is spelled as two separate words: *no one.*

every(body)	no	any	some
every	no	any	some
every	no	any	some
every	no	any	some(where)

Now write twelve sentences using a different indefinite pronoun as the subject of each.

1. Everybody
2. Someone
3. Something
4. Nothing
5. Everything
6. No one
7. Everyone
8. Nobody
9. Anyone
10. Anybody
11. Somebody
12. Anything

5. Notice that *everywhere, nowhere, anywhere,* and *somewhere,* ordinarily come at the end of the predicate as an X and function as adverbials of place.

For instance,

We didn't go anywhere.

I put it somewhere.

Spores are everywhere.

Your hat seems to be nowhere.

Anywhere is usually part of a negative VP.

Complete these sentences using each of the *where* indefinite pronouns twice.

1. He went ......
2. He didn't go ......

γ

3. Maybe you'll find your brother ......
4. Maybe you won't find your brother ......
5. Bacteria grow ......
6. He was able to find him ......
7. Ignorance will succeed ......
8. People are much the same ......

6. *(Some)* and *(any)* alternate in the predicates of affirmative and negative sentences. That is, *some* becomes *any* in negative VPs.

For example,

He met somebody. ——» He didn't meet anybody.
He met someone. ——» He didn't see anyone.
I bought something. ——» I didn't buy anything.
He found it somewhere.—» He didn't find it anywhere.

Change each of the following sentences into the negative, and make appropriate changes in the VP.

1. I love somebody. --» **I don't love anybody.**
2. I saw it somewhere.
3. Buy me something.
4. Give it to someone.
5. He gave it to somebody.
6. I bought it somewhere.
7. Give my brother something.
8. You love someone.
9. You saw somebody.
10. You want something.
11. You are someone.
12. Your book is somewhere here.
13. It is something you want.
14. You are somebody important.
15. You believe that someone will help you.

7. One sort of NP is determiner plus noun. A determiner is as follows:

Det —» (pre-article) + article + (demonstrative) + (number)

A determiner must be at least an article. Parentheses, ( ), mean that the item is optional.

article —» (the) definite
(a(n))
(some) nondefinite
(ZERO)

It is very important to English speakers whether we use a definite or nondefinite article before a noun. The difference between *the* and *a* is very great.

The nondefinite articles mark nouns that are not yet identified or specified in our speaking and writing, and the definite articles mark nouns when have identified them. We might say for instance.

> When I was walking to school this morning I saw
>
> *a* snake. *The* snake was almost as big as my arm.

The first sentence is necessary to specify what we are talking about. Then we can use *the.*

> In order to make *ZERO* chicken soup, first steal *a* chicken. Then cut *the* chicken in small *ZERO* pieces, make a broth with *ZERO* water and *ZERO* onions and add *the* chicken. Then eat *the* chicken soup.

In the first sentence *chicken soup* is not yet specified, nor is *chicken.* Both are marked with nondefinite articles. That is,

(*a* chicken)
(*ZERO* water) —» *the* chicken soup
(*ZERO* onions)

After you steal *a* chicken, it becomes *the chicken;* after you make soup, it becomes *the* soup.

8. Articles go with singular and plural nouns. For example,

The man arrived at noon.

The men arrived at noon.

The boy is my cousin.

The boys are my cousins.

But,

A man arrived at noon. (Singular)

Some men arrived at noon. (Plural)

My cousin is *a* boy.

My cousins are boys. (*ZERO* boys)

A girl came to my school.

Some girls came to my school.

Girls come to my school every day. (*ZERO* girls)

The goes with singular and plural nouns.

A goes with singular nouns.

Some goes with plural nouns.

ZERO goes with plural nouns.

For example,

> Girls used to come to my school every day to ask me to teach them. *The* girls were from nearby farms. *The* farms were owned by families which could not afford to pay tuition. I tried to find a method to help *the* families pay *the* tuition. *The* method I found was very simple

How many nouns in the above paragraph have ZERO articles? What are they? Explain how the nondefinite articles become definite articles.

> Some people think the world is flat; some people think it is round. The people who think it flat are mistaken; so are the people who think it round.

Why is *the world* specified with a definite article in the first sentence? Is it necessary to specify which world? Explain how *some* becomes *the.*

9. The nondefinite articles *some* and ZERO mean about the same. For example,

> «Men have died, and worms have eaten them, but not for love.» — Shakespeare

This could be said:

> «Some men have died, and some worms have eaten them, but not for love».

Some means a certain number of, or a certain quantity of. Write sentences with these words.

1. some boys
2. some sugar
3. some people
4. some money
5. some books
6. some students
7. some freedom
8. some paper

10. One of the most useful kinds of English sentence comes from the nondefinite article + noun. When the NP1 of a BE + adverb sentence is marked with a nondefinite article, we can transform it into a sentence with *there.*

A man is in the room. —» There is a man in the room.

NP1 + BE + X. —» There + BE + NP1 + X.

Notice that one sentence is transformed from the other. Whenever one sentence comes from another, it retains the meaning of the original sentence. Transformation does not change meaning. There-sentences mean that something *is,* or exists somewhere. Transform the following sentences into *there*-sentences. For example,

A cat is in my hat. —» There is a cat in my hat.

1. A student was over here.
2. Some men were under the floor.
3. A girl is in my closet.
4. A fly is on your nose.
5. A bad smell is in this room.
6. Some girls are on this hill.
7. Soldiers are in Mogadiscio.
8. Sailors were on the oceans.
9. A test is in room No. 7.
10. Three students were in the dining room.

11. The first word of a there-sentence is not the word that means «a remote place ..... *there.* We can say, for instance,

There is a book over there.

Change these BE + Adverb sentences to THERE sentences. Change the adverb phrase to *there.* Remember that the meaning doesn't change.

1. Several men are in my car. —» There are several men there.
2. A few students are in class.
3. Rats are in the cabinet.
4. Coffee is in the pot.
5. A big spider is in that box.
6. A lot of water is in the classroom.
7. Matches are in the kitchen.
8. Soup is in that bowl.
9. An error is in that paragraph.
10. A door is in that room.
11. A table was under the stage.
12. Is salt in that box? —» Is there salt there?
13. Freedom was in that country.
14. Was freedom in that country?
15. Were people in that building?
16. Is ink in that bottle?
17. Are pencils in those desks?
18. A boy was in the tree.
19. Some exercises are in that textbook.
20. A ruler is on that table.

12. Certain possessives do not derive from the verb *has. Abdille Hassan's poems* does not come from «Abdille Hassan had poems». Rather it comes from «Abdille Hassan wrote poems», or something similar. *Edison's inventions* derives from «Edison made inventions». Put the (-S) inflection on animate nouns only, with certain *exceptions* like moon, earth, ship flag, money,s worth. Nouns which refer to a period of time, like *week, day,* or *month,* take the possessive morpheme.

Write the NP + (-S) + NP which derives from each of these sentences. For example,

Ali makes tea. —» Ali's tea.

1. The moon has a circumference. —» (exception)
2. The ship has a captain. —» (exception)
3. Einstein had theories. —»
4. He delayed six minutes. —» (exception). Six minutes' delay......
5. The notice was for three weeks. —» (exception)
6. The newspaper will arrive tomorrow. —» (exception)
7. The sugar cost fifteen cents. —» (exception). Fifteen cents' worth of
8. The class is for girls.
9. Study will last two years. —» (exception)
10. The petrol costs seven shillings. —» (exception)
11. A woman should do the work. —»
12. The earth has oceans —» (exception)
13. Schubert wrote songs.
14. It is a fair for the world. —» A world's (exception)
15. The weather will be next week. —» (exception)

However, usually when the NP refers to an inanimate thing we use a phrase with *of* to indicate the relationship between the two NPs. We say, for instance, as *you* should:

the beginning of school
the bottom of the class
the end of the test
the edge of the rug
the roof of the mosque
the surface of the road

Use *of* phrases when the first NP is inanimate.

13. Write this substitution drill:

It is my book.

1. It is mine.
2. yours:
3. It's:
4. hers:
5. his:
6. its:
7. theirs:
8. ours:
9. Ali's:
10. his:

Notice in sentence No. 9 that you wrote *Ali's*, meaning *Ali's book.* You can delete NPs after possessive pronouns.

What are the differences between it's and its?

Rewrite each sentence, changing NP2 to a second possessive pronoun. Examples:

I have my books. Ali. —» Ali has his.

I brought Ali's book. Ali. —» Ali brought mine.

1. I brought my books to class. Ahmed brought
2. I brought my paper to class. Yusuf
3. I mailed my letters this morning. Amina
4. I don't like my car. Ismail
5. I visited my brothers. Awes
6. I picked up my tickets. Ibrahim
7. I used up my ink. Abdi
8. George made up his mind. Ali
9. Ali handed in his papers. Awes and I
10. Ismail distrusted our motives. You

14. The question word which is used to learn about NP + (-S) + NP constructions is *whose.*

I saw Ali's book. Whose book did you see?

That is, Ali's —» whose.

The answer to the above question is *Ali's.*

Change these sentences to appropriate whose-questions.
For example,

You bought Ibrahim's radio. Whose radio did you buy?

1. I gave Yusuf your pencil. Whose
2. I saw Abdi's friend.
3. That camel is ours.
4. It is my father's car.
5. He took Salah's coat.
6. Hussein sent him Farah's grades.
7. Warsama brought hers.
8. Elmi spoke about Omar's loyalty.
9. Ismail distrusted our motives.
10. Hassan denied the judge's accusation.

Now answer each question with a short answer. For example,

Whose radio did you buy? .... Ibrahim's.

15. A common noun is a count noun or a non-count noun.

Common noun —» (Count noun)
(non-count noun (mass noun))

Sometimes we call a non-count noun a mass noun.

Count noun —» (singular)
(plural)

Singular count nouns occur only with the articles *the* and *a(n)*. Plural count nouns occur only with the articles ZERO, *the,* and *some.*

Non-count nouns occur only with the articles ZERO, and *some.* Which of the three kinds of common nouns take the same kinds of articles?

16. You can count books, cats, students, teachers, schools, roads, trees, cups, pencils, and cowboys. They are called count nouns.

You cannot count sugar, bread, love, discipline, water, coffee, salt, and tea. They are called non-count nouns.

It is very important to English speakers not to confuse count nouns with non-count nouns. That is, never use a(n) with non-count nouns.

Read these lists aloud.

a book	some books	some sugar
a cat	some cats	some tea
a student	some students	some light
a teacher	some teachers	some sunshine
a school	some schools	some freedom
a road	some roads	some spaghetti

The words in the third column refer to quantities ,not to numbers. The words in the second column refer to numbers, not to quantities.

Compare these sentences:

I need a book. I need books. I need some books. I need the books.
I need milk. I need milk. I need some milk. I need the milk.

What is the plural of *book?*
What is the plural of *milk?* (There is no plural.)
Do non-count nouns have plural forms?

1. With what kind of common noun do you not use a(n)?
2. Of what kind of common nouns do we not use plural forms?
3. We use a(n) with what kind of common noun?
4. We use plural forms of what kind of common noun?

Write the following substitution drill, then read it aloud.

Abdi ate a banana.

1. fruit:
2. some fruit:
3. drank some tea:
4. coffee:
5. bought:
6. Hassan:
7. a knife:
8. water:
9. sells:
10. sugar:

In each of the above sentences is NP2 a count noun or non-count noun?

17. Change each of the following sentences from *some*-plural or *some*-non-count to *singular* or *non-count* alone. For example,

I need some pencils. —» I need a pencil.
I need some money. —» I need money.

1. I need some oranges. —»
2. We want some ink.
3. He sees some water.
4. They bought some oxygen.
5. You wanted some pens.
6. We see some glasses.
7. Ali saw some toast.
8. Yusuf wanted some friends.
9. Ibrahim asked for some bananas.
10. Ali gave me some tea.

18. Generally, things which are not countable are non-count nouns. That is, if you can say, for instance, «one pen, two pens, three pens, four pens», the noun *pen* is a count noun. But if you cannot say «one X, two X, three X», then X is a non-count noun.

Non-count nouns are the names of particular kinds of things. Here are some categories of non-count nouns.

A. Liquids

Use each of these non-count nouns to complete this sentence. What does each non-count noun mean? Substitute:

I want some *water*.

1. juice:
2. beer:
3. tea:
4. paint:
5. ink:
6. soup:
7. broth:
8. milk:
9. oil:
10. grease:

B. Finely-divided stuff is not countable. Substitute:

Ali found *sugar* in his pants pocket.

1. rice:
2. flour:
3. gravel:
4. dirt:
5. dust:
6. powder:
7. grass:
8. hair:
9. tea:
10. sand:

Notice that we do not put a(n) before any of these words.

C. Material for making things is not countable. Substitute:
This merchandise is made of *silver*.

1. cloth:
2. wood:
3. plastic:
4. rubber:
5. glass:
6. tile:
7. cement:
8. concrete:
9. masonite:
10. aluminum:

D. Gases are not countable. Substitute:
How can we measure the amount of *hydrogen* in it?

1. steam:
2. smoke:
3. oxygen:
4. nitrogen:
5. air:
6. water vapor:
7. argon:
8. helium:
9. fog:
10. carbon dioxide

E. Manifestations of energy are not countable. Substitute:
Light is a natural phenomenon.

1. warmth:
2. electricity
3. darkness:
4. sunshine:
5. weather:
6. force:
7. pressure:
8. weight:
9. lightning:
10. heat:

F. Areas of intellection are not countable.
My brother is studying *geography*.

1. pathology:
2. biology:
3. entymology:
4. mathematics:
5. genetics:
6. paleontology:
7. anthropology:
8. paleo-anthropology:
9. astronomy:
10. geometry:

G. Chemical elements are not countable. Substitute:

Antimony is a chemical element.

1. Arsenic:
2. Barium:
3. Beryllium:
4. Bismuth:
5. Boron:
6. Bromine:
7. Cadmium:
8. Calcium:
9. Carbon:
10. Chlorine:

There are more than ten chemical elements. How many are there all together?

H. Abstract Relationships.

Define these nouns. For example,

Freedom is an abstract noun.

1. Liberty is freedom from arbitrary control.
2. Bravery:
3. Honesty:
4. Love:
5. Luck:
6. Fun:
7. Laughter:
8. Peace:
9. Work:
10. Trouble:

I. *Isms* (abstract relationships).

Try to define all these isms.

1. *Capitalism* is an economic theory.
2. Socialism:
3. Communism:
4. Fascism:
5. Imperialism:
6. Plagiarism:
7. Criticism:
8. Animalism:
9. Barbarianism:
10. Alcoholism:

J. Abstract nouns derived from verbs take (-ment), (-age) and (-ion).

The process of deriving abstract nouns assures that you understand the sentence in which you use the word. For instance,

> Ali and Asha *eloped* last week. Their *elopement* was a shock to their parents.
>
> They *settled* their quarrel. The *settlement* happened just in time for them to part friends.

Whenever we use these abstract nouns we always make sure that the listeners or readers know about what happened, or our use of an abstract noun *implies* that something happened in the past or will happen in the future. If we say, for instance,

Ali's *imprisonment* was long and hard.

We imply that Ali was put in prison. Why are people put in prison?

Explain what happened to allow us to use each of these abstract nouns this way. Imagine whatever is necessary to explain them.

1. His *banishment* was terrible. (He was banished. They banished him).
2. Our *acknowledgement* of your order does not mean our *acceptance* of it.
3. *Nourishment* is necessary.
4. The *management* of offices is my specialty.
5. You will have much *enjoyment* at the Lido.
6. His *achievement* was very great.
7. He got the job because of his *endearment* to her.
8. My *disappointment* was so great I cried.
9. *Payment* accompanied his request.
10. Abid fears *chastisement.*

Continue with these abstract nouns in (-age).

Define each of them by completing the sentence.

1. Courage is firmness without fear.
2. Pillage is
3. Millage is
4. Baggage is
5. Bondage is
6. Breakage is
7. Cleavage is
8. Postage is
9. Outrage is
10. Rage is

Can you use a(n) before an abstract noun? (Sometimes.)

Abstract nouns in (-ion) refer to the activity which the verbs they come from described. For example,

Information «— to inform. *Information* comes from the verb *inform,* which means to tell or give news or facts to someone.

What does each of these words below imply? For example, tell what *relaxation* is.

His relaxation was well-deserved. (Relaxation is the act of relaxing, of engaging in pastimes, diversions or entertainment).

Use each word in a sentence.

1. recreation —» Recreation is necessary to modern man.
2. demonstration —»
3. digestion —»
4. evaporation —»
5. regulation —»
6. hydration —»
7. validation —»
8. secretion
9. respiration
10. asphyxiation

Are abstract nouns countable? (Sometimes).

K. Many abstract nouns are derived from adjectives. We add (-ness) to adjectives. For example,

good + (-ness) —» goodness

Goodness is the state of being good.

«His *goodness* was admired by everyone».

Form nouns in (-ness) from the following words. Use each noun in a sentence.

1. happy (y —» i) Happiness is what we want.
2. careful
3. dreamy
4. remote
5. blind
6. subtle
7. dark
8. kind
9. prepared
10. ready

What does each noun mean?

L. Abstract nouns in (-ence) come from adjectives that end in -ent. For example,

persistent —» persistence

Form nouns in (-ence) from these adjectives. Then use each in a sentence.

1. silent —» Silence is golden.
2. innocent —»
3. dependent —»
4. independent —»
5. different —»
6. indolent —»
7. reverent —»
8. prudent —»
9. violent —»
10. imminent —»

What does each noun mean?

M. Abstract nouns in (-ance) come from adjectives that end in -ant. For example,

radiant —» radiance

Form nouns in (-ance) from these adjectives. Then use each in a sentence.

1. defiant —» Defiance will not be tolerated.
2. exuberant —»
3. distant —»
4. tolerant —»
5. observant —»
6. repugnant —»
7. hesitant —»
8. vigilant —»
9. ignorant —»
10. reliant —»

What does each noun mean?

You can put a(n) before one of these abstract nouns, but when you do this, the noun becomes somewhat specified. For example,

Vigilance is very important to all of use today. Last week Ali Omar demonstrated to us *a* vigilance which we all should emulate. *The* vigilance he showed enabled him to detect enemy soldiers crossing the border near our camp. When Ali gave the alarm, the enemy soldiers fled.

Notice that the markers of the word vigilance change from ZERO to *a* to *the.* Sometimes non-count nouns can be countable.

N. Abstract nouns in (-cy) come from adjectives that end in -te or -t, or from other nouns. For example,

accurate —» accuracy

Form nouns in (-cy) from these words. Then use each of them in a sentence.

1. delicate —» delicacy. Asha's delicacy is delightful.
2. intimate —»
3. pirate —»
4. infant —»
5. democrat —»
6. frequent —»
7. potent —»
8. militant —»
9. ascendant —»
10. blatant —»

19. Use ZERO or *a(n)* in this substitution exercise.

For example,

I like coffee.

tea: I like tea.

1. want:
2. match:
3. cigaret:
4. milk:
5. car:
6. ink:
7. soup:
8. comb:
9. thread:
10. string:

Almost all ordinary substances (non-count nouns) can be quantified so that we can count them. Thus,

a bottle of milk «— The milk is in a bottle.

a bar of soap «— The soap is a bar.

We can call this TR the quantifying transformation. Quantify the following. For example,

The ink is in a bottle. —» A bottle of ink

1. The soup is in a can. —»
2. The thread is on a spool. —»
3. The string is in a ball. —»
4. The water is in a glass. —»
5. The bread is one piece. —»
6. The tea is in a cup. —»
7. The spaghetti is on a plate. —»
8. The pasta is in a box. —»
9. The butter weighs one pound. —»
10. The sugar is in a sack. —»

20. Sometimes we apparently count non-count nouns. Then there is usually a change in meaning. For example,

Glass is made of silicon.

A glass is usually made of silicon.

Glass and *a glass* are different.

Explain the differences in meaning between these pairs of nouns — count and non-count — in these pairs of sentences. Tell whether each is a count noun or a non-count noun.

1. This desk is made of *wood.*
   The old shoemaker lived in a dark *wood.*
2. We always put a lot of sugar in our tea.
   We went to a tea at the Ministry of Information office.
3. Selling clothing is a good business.
   Instead of becoming a teacher, Ali went into business.
4. Work is what keeps me sane.
   His latest painting is a work of art.
5. Her hair was raven-black.
   I found a hair in my soup.
6. There's a rubber in Ibrahim's desk.
   Rubber is the most important export of Java.
7. Amina uses a tile for a paperweight.
   We are going to put tile on our floors.
8. Iron is an important metal which we import.
   Asha burnt her fingers on a hot iron.
9. The first paper will be about economics.
   We must have a lot of paper for classroom use.
10. Yusuf went out in the garden to take a smoke.
    Do you see that smoke rolling out of Abdi's house?

11. Fog is composed of suspended water droplets.
Last night a fog enveloped the countryside

12. A hard rain washed out the sea-road.
Rain is the most common form of precipitation.

13. His silence was more eloquent than his words.
A sudden silence filled the room.

14. During Ramadan Ali's weight increased by twenty-five percent.
When you place a weight on the pan, the other end rises.

15. Ismail published a criticism of Gibran's poetry.
Asha doesn't take criticism well.

16. The distance from here to Rome is five thousand miles.
There is so much distance between us we can't communicate.

17. Reverence is a virtue.
We need a reverence for the opinions of mankind.

18. There is a certain remoteness in his personality.
Remoteness from civilization is no disadvantage.

19. «They are flying planes» is an ambiguity.
Ambiguity is a necessary part of wit.

20. He demonstrates a readiness to learn.
Readiness is a factor in learning to read.

21. Willingness to be of service is a positive attribute.
Ibrahim shows a willingness to avoid work.

22. Yemen has a small population.
Population of the area began in 1627.

21. Det —» (pre-article) + article + (demonstrative) + (number).

You have learned the various forms that *article* can take.

Pre-article —» many of
(a) few of
much of
(a) little of
a lot of
lots of + definite article
both of
half of
one of
thirty-seven of
each of
all of

Write a substitution exercise using these pre-articles.

We saw all of the students at the fair.

1. each of:
2. thirty-seven of:
3. thirty-six of:
4. one of:
5. half of:
6. both of:
7. lots of:
8. a lot of:
9. a few of:
10. many of:

Notice that *much of* and *(a) little of* are not used with *students*. Why?

22. *Much of*, and *(a) little of*, and *a lot of*, and *lots of* can be used with non-count nouns, whenever the definite article is present.

Write a substitution exercise using these words. For example,

We bought much of his ink.

1. a little of: (his ink or the ink)
2. a lot of:
3. lots of:
4. chalk:
5. a little of:
6. work:
7. a lot of:
8. much of:
9. food:
10. a little of:

Notice that his «— he + (definite) + possessive (-s).

23. Two of the pre-articles have optional (*a*) before them. This causes a curious, important alternation. Read these examples.

1. I have a little oil.
2. I have little oil.
3. I have a few friends.
4. I have few friends.

The second and fourth examples (without *a*) have a negative meaning.

I have a little oil means that I have a small quantity of oil which is enough for my purposes.

But *I have little oil* means that I have a small quantity of oil which is not enough for my purposes, and I probably need more oil.

I have a few friends means that I have a small number of friends with whom I am quite content.

But *I have few friends* means that I have a small number of friends and I am probably unhappy about this fact.

Tell whether the NP2s in these sentences are enough or not enough.

1. We bought a little lettuce. (enough)
2. You bought little lettuce.
3. Abdi has few brothers.
4. We got a few new books.
5. Do you want a little money?
6. Is there a little ink in the bottle?
7. Is there little time left?
8. We fought few battles.
9. I took him a few of the lessons.
10. He passed few tests.
11. He passed few of our tests.
12. He bought little of the food.
13. He bought a little food.
14. I wanted a little money.
15. He bought little of the food.

24. Whenever the pre-article is used with a nondefinite article it has a different meaning from when it is used with a definite article.

Pre-article + ZERO nondefinite article —» pre-article delete *of* + ZERO

For instance,

Several of the boys —» several boys.

These two NPs have different meanings. In *several of the boys, boys* is specified. In *several boys*, you don't know which boys are being referred to.

Transform these NPs to nondefinite NPs. For example,
many of the students —» many students

1. much of the milk —»
2. a few of the men —»
3. few of the men —»
4. a little of the meat —»
5. little of the meat —»
6. several of the books —»
7. one of the cows —»
8. one hundred of the cows —»
9. much of the money —»
10. many of the new textbooks —»

Now write a VP for each of the above NPs. For example,

Many of the students like to study.

Many students like to study.

What are the differences between the pairs of sentences?

Notice that *a lot of* and *lots of* are not among the pre-articles above. *A lot of* and *lots of* never have *of* deleted.

25. Substitute *a few, a little, many, much, a lot, of, lots of several* for *a small* or *large quantity of* or a *small* or *large number of*. For example,

Abdi eats a large quantity of food. —» Abdi eats a lot of food.

Or, *Abdi eats much food.*

1. Babies drink a large quantity of milk. —»
2. I need a large quantity of sugar. —»
3. He has a small number of shillings. —»
4. He doesn't eat a large quantity of fruit. —»
5. We use a large quantity of bread. —»
6. We always buy a large quantity of chalk. —»
7. We never need a large quantity of salt. —»
8. We always pass a large number of students. —»

9. He never had a large number of friends. —»
10. People need a small quantity of iodine. —»

26. Det —» (pre-article) + article + (demonstrative) + number)

(d1 - nearness
demonstrative —» (
(d2 - remoteness

(definite
d1 —» (
(nondefinite

(this - singular
d1 definite —» (
(these - plural

(a certain - singular
d1 nondefinite —» (
(certain - plural

(definite
d2 —» (
(nondefinite

(that - singular
d2 definite —» (
(those - plural

(sòme (stressed) - singular
d2 nondefinite —» (
(sòme (stressed) - plural

Change the articles by adding *demonstrative* to the determiner. For example,

The test was simple. (remote) —» That test was simple.

1. The test was simple. (near)
2. The school is small. (near)
3. The book is red. (remote)
4. The books were old. (remote)
5. The students don't study. (near)
6. I need the money. (remote)
7. We want the clothes. (near)
8. I love a girl. (near) —» I love a certain girl.
9. A man told me to sit down. (remote)
10. Girls never tell the truth. (near) —» Certain .....

CHAPTER THREE

RELATIVE CLAUSES

1. Relative clauses are groups of words which help specify nouns in NPs.

Relative clauses always contain a (tense) morpheme.

Relative clauses can be added to any sentence.

A relative clause can begin with:

(who(m))
(that)
(which)

For example,

I saw the man *whom you were talking to.*

I like the book *that you brought to class.*

The class *which met at three o'clock* was yours.

The girl *that spoke to you* is my sister.

The nouns which these relative clauses help identify are:

man
book
class
girl

1. Which words in each sentence carry the (tense) morpheme?
2. What kind of noun do we use *who(m)* with?
3. What kind of noun do we use *that* with?
4. What kind of noun do we use *which* with?

Write this substitution drill.

Base sentence: The man came to dinner. +

The man was elected president. —»

The man who was elected president came to dinner.

1. who saw me:
2. who gave me the books
3. who had gone to town
4. who thought I was his friend
5. who liked lamb
6. whom I met
7. whom you saw last night
8. whom you spoke about
9. whom my father invited
10. whom we discussed

The above ten inserts come from other sentences:

1. He saw me.
2. He gave me the books.
3. He had gone to town.
4. He thought I was his friend.
5. He liked lamb.
6. I met him.
7. You saw him last night.
8. You spoke about him.
9. My father invited him.
10. We discussed him.

The grammatical operation by which we form relative clauses is this.

Relative clause transformtion: TREL:

$$X+NP+Y \rightarrow NP + \begin{pmatrix} \text{who(m)} \\ \text{which} \\ \text{that} \end{pmatrix} + X + Y$$

X and Y can be anything or ZERO.

Combine the following bases and inserts to make sentences containing relative clauses.

For example,

B: I saw the woman. +
I: The woman sells milk. —»
I saw the woman who sells milk.

1. B: I thanked the boy. +
I: The boy found my keys. —»

2. B: We went to see his friend. +
I: His friend is a doctor. —»

3. B: My friend sent me a package. +
I: My friend is in Italy. —»

4. A boy came to school. +
The boy had tuberculosis. —»

5. My friends like movies. +
Movies are about cowboys. —»

6. Ali bought a radio. +
The radio was from Japan. —»

7. Amina sent her brother a picture. +
Her brother is in the United States. —»

8. Abdi considered buying a slide-rule.
A slide-rule would help him in his mathematics class.

9. Our class will meet at ten o'clock. +
Our class is all boys.

10. Mohamed has never been to Mogadiscio.
Mohamed arrived from Hargeisa yesterday.

2. An NP functions as the subject or complement of a sentence or as an object of a verb or of a preposition. Remember that a sentence —» NP + VP. Sometimes VP —» verb + NP.

In the sentence, «Abdi loves Amina», Abdi is the subject; *Amina* is the object of *loves*.

Whenever an NP is an object, and a TREL applies to it, and the NP refers to a person, the object morpheme (-m) must be added to the relative word *who*. Compare:

A. My uncle *who* lives in Brava is a thief.

B. My uncle *whom* I saw yesterday is a thief.

Sentence A comes from:

1. My uncle is a thief. +
2 .My uncle lives in Brava.

Sentence B comes from:

1. My uncle is a thief. +
2. I saw my uncle yesterday.

In sentence B *my uncle* is the subject of the verb *BE*, but it is also the object of the verb *saw* in the relative clause «whom I saw yesterday».

We usually do not pronounce the word *whom*/hum/. We usually pronounce *whom*/hu/. We usually pronounce *whom*/hu/ when *whom* is the first word in a question. For example,

Who(m) did you talk to?

Who(m) did you get the money from?

Who(m) did you see at the party?

We always spell *whom* whom, regardless of how we pronounce it. However, we most often omit *whom* whenever it occurs next to the NP it applies to.

Read the sentences you wrote in Section 1. None of those sentences contain *whom*. Now write the same kind of exercise inserting the relative word *whom* and the relative clause in each sentence.

For example,

My friends arrived today. +

I haven't seen my friends for three years. —»

My friends whom I haven't seen for three years arrived today.

1. Our teacher is leaving us. +

We respect our teacher very much.

2. I gave a gift to my brother. +
   I defeated my brother in the race.
3. The fellow was not a member of our class.
   You gave the papers to him.
4. All of us want to complain to the headmaster.
   The teacher failed us.
5. The people were representatives from other schools.
   We saw the people at the meeting.
6. The Arabs are very anxious to get our business.
   We buy groceries from the Arabs.
7. The students arrived on time.
   We sent letters to the students.
8. People cannot register this semester.
   The headmaster disapproves of them.
9. The Minister frequently visits his sister there.
   We saw the Minister in Afgoi.
10. He gave the boy the keys to his office.
    He had not seen the boy before.

Now delete *whom* in each sentence you wrote. We usually delete *whom* in such sentences. This deletion is called the DEL REL transformation.

3. We cannot delete *whom* when the NP is a pronoun.

We met him. +

You had spoken of him. —»

We met him *whom* you had spoken of.

Write this exercise.

1. We saw her. +
   You gave her the money.

2. He spoke to me. +
He had never met me before.

3. We sold the merchandise to them. +
We had cheated them.

4. They sent the package to us. +
They knew they couldn't trust us

5. I refuse to talk to you.
I cannot trust you.

Sentences like above are very formal and *literary*. We seldom speak this way.

4. In this exercise use *who, whom, that* and *which* to relate the relative clause to the appropriate NP. Then delete the relative word if you can. For example,

Those are the new stamps. +
He bought the stamps in Afgoi. —»

Those are the new stamps that he bought in Afgoi. —» Those are the new stamps he bought in Afgoi.

1. Did you see the new furniture? +
Ali bought it for his new house.

2. He didn't want to talk with the policeman. +
The policeman stopped him on the street,

3. He didn't want to talk with the policeman. +
He had given the policeman five shillings.

4. The sheikh came to our school from Cairo. +
You saw the sheikh this morning.

5. The sheikh came to our school from Cairo. +
The sheikh spoke to our class this morning.

6. The flyswatter is broken. +
You bought it in the market.

7. The briefcase is made of leather. +
I carry the briefcase.

8. This table contains a list of all the phyla. +
I'm showing you this table.

9. Our house is at Kilometer Four. +
Our house was built recently.

10. These lamps are made of sheepskin. +
I bought them from a peddler.

5. Sometimes the NP which a relative clause applies to is possessive. Whenever the NP is possessive, the relative words become *whose.*

$$(\text{poss}) + \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{who(m)} \\ \text{that} \\ \text{which} \end{array} \right) \longrightarrow \text{whose}$$

For example,

The man whose house burned down is my brother.

«— The man is my brother. +
His house burned down.

or:

The moon, whose circumference is quite small, is not made of green cheese. «— The moon is not made of green cheese. + The circumference of the moon is quite small. or + The moon's circumference is quite small.

Combine these sentences. For example,

I'm very fond of that girl. +
Her father owns the cinema. —»
I'm very fond of that girl whose father owns the cinema.

1. I've never met a man. +
I could remember his name.

2. It's a strange story. +
Its origin is lost to history.

3. The man visited our school. +
His daughter received the first prize.

4. The boy was late for class. +
His watch isn't keeping good time.

5. I don't believe I've met this fellow. +
His story fascinates everyone who hears it.

6. I think it's the Volkswagen. +
Its origin is most interesting.

7. Without a doubt, it is Bach. +
I enjoy his music most of all.

8. Ali said it was Picasso. +
Picasso's painting influenced him.

9. I'm sure it's Einstein. +
I can't understand Einstein's theories.

10. Are you sure it is Ibrahim? +
Ibrahim's mother came from Berbera.

6. One very literary kind of sentence comes from an optional word-order transformation whenever the NP is the object of a preposition and is modified by a relative clause. Here is the formula:

$$X + \text{prep} + NP + Y \text{ —» } NP + \text{prep} + \begin{pmatrix}\text{whom}\\ \text{which}\end{pmatrix} + X + Y$$

I sent Ali to the jail. —» ..... the jail to which I sent Ali.....

The relative words *whom* or *which* cannot be deleted from this clause. For example,

The jail was is town. +
I sent Ali to the jail. —»

The jail to which I sent Ali was in town.

The students were afraid. +
The master spoke to the students. —»

The students to whom the master spoke were afraid.

Continue:

1. The store was closed. +
He sent the order to the store.

2. The boy has left. +
I bought the clothes for the boy.

3. The man has betrayed me. +
I placed my trust in a man.

4. The professor made a startling discovery. +
I worked under the professor.

5. Do not ask the boy. +
The bell tolls for the boy.

6. I sent the money to the office. +
You prepared the statement for the office.

7. We ought meet the people. +
You sent the notice to the people.

8. There are seventeen students here. +
The questions are meaningless to the students.

9. This book belongs to the soldier. +
I owe the soldier seventeen shillings.

10. That is professor Dart. +
The meeting was held in Professor Dart's house

Now rewrite each of the sentences you have just written, applying an *ordinary* relative clause TR *and* omitting the relative word if you can. For example,

A. The jail which I sent Ali to was in town. —»
B. The jail I sent Ali to was in town.
A. The jail which I sent Ali to was in town. —»
afraid. —»
B. The students the master spoke to were afraid.

Be careful of number ten.

A. That is Professor Dart whose house the meeting was held in.

B. (You cannot rewrite this part of number ten because it contains the possessive morpheme).

7. Relative words can be deleted when they are followed by BE. Phrases which modify and specify NPs come from the deletion of part of a relative clause. Whenever

$$\text{NP} + \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{who} \\ \text{which} \\ \text{that} \end{array}\right) + \text{BE} + \text{X} \rightarrow \text{NP} + \text{X},$$

you can see that the relative word and BE are deleted.

For example,

The girl who is singing is my sister —»

The girl singing is my sister.

Or

The girl who is in my car is my sister. —»

The girl in my car is my sister.

Or

The girl who is my sister is singing. —»

The girl, my sister, is singing.

Or

The girl who was hit by the car is my sister. —»

The girl hit by the car is my sister.

Perform TREL and DEL REL transformations on these sentences. For example,

I saw the woman. +
The woman was selling milk. —»
I saw the woman who was selling milk. —»
I saw the woman selling milk.

1. We went to see Abdi's friend. +
   Abdi's friend is a doctor.

2. My friend sent me a package. +
   My friend is in Italy.

3. My brothers like movies. +
The movies are about cowboys.

4. Ali bought a radio. +
The radio is from Japan.

5. Amina sent her brother a picture of herself. +
Her brother is in the United States.

6. Abdi considered buying a slide-rule. +
The slide-rule was from England.

7. Our class will meet tomorrow. +
Our class is studying biology.

8. My friend has never been to Mogadiscio. +
My friend is arriving from Hargeisa tomorrow.

9. Are there reasons why the students want to go to Brava? +
The students are failing the course.

10. This textbook is very large. +
This textbook is used by high school students.

8. Whenever deletion of the relative pronoun and BE leaves a simple word, the word usually shifts its position to be in front of the NP. We call this the TNM (noun modifier transformation).

For example,

A. the student failing —» the failing student.
(*failing* is a simple word.)

B. the boy frightened —» the frightened boy.

C. the lights outside —» the outside lights.

These NPs can come from the following underlying sentences.

A. The student was failing. —»
the student who was failing. —»
the student failing. —»
the failing student.

B. The boy is frightened. —»
the boy who is frightened —»
the boy frightened —»
the frightened boy.

C. The lights are outside. —»
the lights which are outside —»
the lights outside —»
the outside lights.

Combine the following sentences with TREL and TNM. For instance,

You bought a watch in Aden. +
The watch was broken. —»
You bought a watch which was broken in Aden.
You bought a broken watch in Aden.

1. I lost my pen. +
My pen was very valuable.

2. Those students are not to be allowed to go to town.
Those students are failing.

3. The girl was lying on the road when we arrived.
The girl was injured.

4. The surface must be sanded before you paint it.
The surface is inside.

5. Turn off the switch before you leave.
The switch is outside.

6. The examples contain a TNM transformation.
The examples are above.

7. The sentences will help you learn the meaning.
The sentences are following.

8. Go into the bedroom and find my books.
The bedroom is upstairs.

9. The toilet stopped working last night.
The toilet is downstairs.

10. The man caught a big fish.
The man was old.

9. Intensifiers — words like *very, rather, quite, pretty, somewhat, kind of* — precede adjective phrases and adverb phrases. They should be considered part of the phrase.

Continue the exercise of Section 8, paying attention to the intensifiers in the sentences which have them. For example,

The man caught a big fish. +
The man was very old. —»
The very old man caught a big fish.

1. His explanation was rejected.
His explanation was quite inadequate.

2. The pilot asked us all to pray.
The pilot was somewhat stunned.

3. His theories are still found in some textbooks.
His theories are completely rejected.

4. We went to a restaurant.
The restaurant was expensive.

5. The plane could be seen for miles.
The plane was burning.

6. The mouse made a lot of noise.
The mouse was caught by the leg.

7. The one I want you to observe is a new program.
The program is kind of experimental.

8. The wound caused him a lot of pain.
The wound was unhealed.

9. Research is contributing to our knowledge of physics.
The research is contemporary.

10. The insertion can be removed without changing the meaning.
The insertion is parenthetical.

10. Whenever in a VP which is a transitive verb + NP, we apply a TREL and a T DEL and a TNM we get a special kind of NP. For example,

The animal drinks milk. TREL —»
the animal which drinks milk: T DEL —»
the animal drinking milk: TNM —»
the milk-drinking animal

This can be the NP of a sentence. For example,

The milk-drinking animal is a mammal.

The noun before the hyphen is ALWAYS singular.

Change these sentences to produce NPs with hyphenated compound modifiers. For example,

My dog kills snakes. —»
It is a snake-killing dog.

1. This tool sharpens pencils. —»
   It is a .....

2. This sponge cleans windows.

3. This plan reduces weight.

4. This saw trims trees.

5. This machine blows glass.

6. This school trains teachers.

7. This convention chooses candidates.

8. This committee certifies applicants.

9. That dope addict chews kat.

10. This criminal smuggles cigarets.

11. The process described in Section 10 will produce similar NPs when applied to intransitive verbs followed by manner-adverbs or adjectives. For example,

A plane flies high. —»
It's a high-flying plane.

Continue the exercise:

1. That boy works hard. —» He is a hard .....
2. This vehicles moves slowly.
3. That animal walks funny.
4. That fellow looks odd.
5. That girl appears strange.
6. That boy looks good.
7. That turtle walks slow.
8. That puppy grows fast.
9. This ink disappears completely.
10. This problem recurs often.
11. This activity satisfies frequently.
12. This salad tastes good.
13. This thing looks regular.
14. This performance pleases unusually.
15. The story ends happily.
16. That sport looks dangerous.
17. This students seems innocent.
18. This plant grows rapidly.
19. This train runs late.
20. This food nourishes adequately.
21. His performance surprizes pleasantly.
22. This box seems ordinary.
23. This practice motivates sufficiently.
24. This title sounds important.

12. Read the following paragraph aloud. Then explain the exact meaning of each complex NP.

Further development of the arts and crafts program will necessitate the purchase of tool-sharpening equipment, clay-modelling materials, hand-held drills, electrical-wiring materials and diagrams, metal-cutting torches, mechanical-drawing kits, papier-mache-modelling materials, charcoal and pastel-sketching sets, art-teaching kits, wood-carving knives, paper-folding sets, wood-finishing stain, and a number of extremely complicated Chinese-puzzle plans.

CHAPTER FOUR

NOMINALIZATION AND MODIFICATION

1. Adjectives which indicate nationality come from the transformation of location adverb sentences. These adjectives help specify or identify the nouns they modify. For example,

That pen is from Germany. —» That German pen. .....
This hat is from Mexico. ——» This Mexican hat. .....
His radio is from Japan. ——» His Japanese radio. ......
My car is from Sweden. ——» My Swedish car. .....

You must learn the adjective forms of the names of countries and geographical places.

Germany —» German
Mexico —» Mexican
Liberia —» Liberian
Alaska —» Alaskan
Algeria —» Algerian
Alsace —» Alsatian
Laos —» Laotian
Italy —» Italian
Panama —» Panamanian
Nigeria —» Nigerian
India —» Indian
Chile —» Chilean
Bahama —» Bahamian
Assyria —» Assyrian
Australia —» Australian
Canada —» Canadian
Appalachia —» Appalachian
Egypt —» Egyptian
But:
Sweden —» Swedish
Turkey —» Turkish
Spain —» Spanish

Poland —» Polish
Finland —» Finnish
And:
Kuwait —» Kuwaiti
Yemen —» Yemeni
Aden —» Adeni
Bengal —» Bengali
Somalia —» Somali
Pakistan —» Pakistani
And:
Burma —» Burmese
Vietnam —» Vietnamese
Japan —» Japanese
China —» Chinese
Congo —» Congolese
But:
Switzerland —» Swiss
Arabia —» Arabic
France —» French
Greece —» Greek
Thailand —» Thai

Combine the following pairs of sentences.

1. Asha has a lantern. +
   Her lantern is from China —»
2. The soldiers entered the town this morning. +
   The soldiers are from the Congo.
3. My wife is visiting her mother. +
   One of my wives is from Algiers.
4. Have you ever eaten food? +
   The food is from Greece.
5. The language is difficult. +
   The languages is spoken in Vietnam.
6. The leopard is a very valuable animal. +
   The leopard lives in Somalia
7. Abdi bought a new watch. +
   The watch was made in Switzerland.
8. I particularly enjoy music. +
   The music comes from Indonesia.
9. We hope to visit the Southwest. +
   The Southwest is in America.
10. We enjoyed the caviar before dinner. +
    The caviar came from Iran.

2. You learned in Chapter III that whenever the deletion of a relative pronoun and Be leaves a simple word, the simple word shifts its position to be in front of the NP. For example,

The boy who is sick. —» The sick boy. .....

The girl who is singing. —» The singing girl. .....

The child who was bitten. —» The bitten child. .....

The servant who works part-time —» the part-time servant. .....

In contrast to these NPs, modifiers which are complex remain after the NPs. For example,

the boy who is talking to the sergeant. —» the boy talking to the sergeant. .....

the students who are taking the test. —» the students taking the test. .....

Similarly, relative clauses with the verb HAVE form complex adjective phrases with the word WITH. For example,

the man who has black hair. —» the man with black hair. ...

the class which has a new teacher. —» the class with a new teacher. ....

These complex adjective phrases help specify an NP in any position. For example,

The notebook which has a grey cover was on Ali's desk: TNM —»

The notebook with a grey cover was on Ali's desk.

Rewrite each of these sentences, deleting the relative pronoun and verb. For example,

The soldier who was swimming in the river was eaten by a crocodile. —» The soldier swimming in the river was eaten by a crocodile.

1. The few students who are cheating on this examination are only harming themselves. —»
2. The vine which has bright green leaves has climbed up my bedroom window.
3. A few of the people who are trying to enter our country should be refused.
4. Each of the women who are walking up the hill is carrying a jug of water.
5. Several of the new workmen who are receiving their salary through the mail will not be paid this week.
6. The young fellow who has bright red hair, green eyes and a thousand freckles on his face is my brother's buddy.
7. Those old women who are standing in the rain and who are waiting for the bus work at the hospital.
8. Few of the large, brown animals which have long curling horns which are covered with a hard, shiny substance can survive the drought.
9. There is a hair which is on a wart which is on a frog which is on a log which is in a hole which is at the bottom of the sea.
10. The examination which is taking place today is the last in a series of comprehensive Civil Service examinations which were prepared by the Commission on examinations of the School Review Board which was

appointed by the Council of Ministers which was newly formed last Thursday by the government of President Abdullah, the politican who had the greatest support in the election which was held in July.

3. There is a set of intensifiers which can accompany the comparative transformation: T COMP. We put one of these before *more* or before the adjective or adverb if it takes (-er). These words are:

much)
a great deal)
a lot)
quite a bit)
lots) (more + adjective + than)
even) + (less + adjective + than)
still) (adjective + -ER + than)
somewhat)
a little)
little)
slightly)

For example,

Halima is *a little* older than Asha.

I'm *much* less experienced than you are.

Ali plays *even* better than Abdulkadir.

Write sentences comparing people, things, and states.

For example,

This book is *much* newer than that one.

Our examination was *much* more difficult than yours.

Our examination was *much* less difficult than yours.

Asha can run *much* faster than Yusuf can.

After you have read each sentence aloud, inserting the word *much,* read each sentence aloud, inserting and substituting the words *a great deal.* Then substitute *a lot,* and so on down the list of intensifiers.

4. Whenever the noun of an NP is *people,* and the NP is *the* + Adj. + noun, we can delete the noun. For example,

the poor people —» the poor

the interested people —» the interested

the outstanding people —» the outstanding

Change the following by deleting the nouns from NPs which have adjectives in them.

1. The valiant people never taste of death but once. —»
2. The meek people shall inherit the earth.
3. The rich people get richer and the poor people get poorer.
4. The ugly people keep monkeys so that by comparison they will look pretty.
5. The foolish people are known by the company they keep.
6. The conscientious people always finish their work.
7. The sentimental people will always deny the happiness of the realistic people.
8. The Romantic people believe that man is born good.
9. The successful people cannot know the chagrin of the unsuccessful people.
10. The bad people and the beatiful have this in common: that they share little with the ordinary people.

5. We often compare the referents of two NPs or VPs saying that they are the same, or identical. To do this the NP or VP undergoes the TID, the identical transformation. With BE sentences it works like this:

For example,

Ali is old. +

Asha is old: TID —»

Ali is the same age as Asha.

With VERB sentences it works like this:

For example,

Ali works consistently. +

Asha works consistently: TID —»

Ali works with the same consistency as Asha.

In order to apply TID, you must know the appropriate abstract noun. Abstract nouns are the names of relationships between and among things and processes. Try to find the adjectives or adverbs with which we describe the manifestations of these abstract relationships. For example,

Color: red, blue, white, etc.

Price: expensive, cheap

Clarity: clear, clearly

How do we use these abstract nouns?

1. quality:
2. intelligence:
3. kind:
4. size:
5. shape:
6. height:
7. width:
8. length:
9. weight:
10. breadth:
11. depth:
12. tone:
13. pitch:
14. thickness:
15. volume:
16. bouyancy:
17. density:
18. fluidity:
19. volatility:
20. displacement:
21. intensity:
22. solidity:
23. speed:
24. altitude:
25. species:
26. competence:
27. fluency:
28. generosity:
29. type:
30. abundance:
31. distance:
32. velocity:
33. variety:

Now write a short sentence (with BE or a verb) using each of these abstract nouns in a TID. For example,

Your watch is the same quality as mine.

He studies with the same intelligence as I.

Ali speaks with the same clarity as Yusuf.

Amina's eyes are the same color as Hawa's.

6. We use some verbs like adjectives. Whenever we apply the passive transformation we get a past participle which we use as an adjective. For example,

$$\overset{NP1}{\text{Mathematics}}\ \text{interests}\ \overset{NP2}{\text{Ahmed}}\text{: TPASS} \longrightarrow$$

$$\overset{NP2}{\text{Ahmed}}\ \text{is interested. TNM (NOUN-MODIFICATION TR)} \longrightarrow$$

$$\longrightarrow \text{Ahmed is an interested}\ \overset{NP3}{\text{student}}.$$

Apply TPASS and TNM to these sentences.

Make NP3 the word in parentheses.

1. School bores Hawa. (girl)
2. Work tires the class. (group)
3. The collision broke the window. (one)
4. Ali's reply surprised the students. (children)
5. The gift pleased Amina. (young lady)
6. Asha married Yusuf. (man)
7. The pasta satisfied Ibrahim. (worker)
8. The new teacher charmed her classes. (students)
9. Ali sharpened his pencil. (one)
10. The lid covers the drain. (sewer)

7. We use some verbs like adjective in another way, whenever we apply the progressive verb transformation.

For example,

Math interests Ahmed. TPROG —»
*Math is interesting Ahmed. —»
Math is interesting. TNM —»
Math is an interesting subject.
The * asterisk means we don't say this.

Rewrite these sentences to produce the modifying verb.

For example,

School bores Hawa. —» School is boring.

1. Work tires children. —»
2. Ali's reply surprised us. —» (reply *was* surprising).
3. My gift pleased her. —»
4. The spaghetti satisfied us. —»
5. The new teacher charms them. —»
6. Ahmed interests us. —»
7. The show amused the kids. —»
8. Magic fascinates people —»
9. Failure discourages students. —»
10. School upsets Ismail. —»

Now rewrite each of the above with TNM. For example,

School bores Hawa. —» School is a boring place.

Use these nouns for NP2

1. activity:
2. answer:
3. surprize:
4. dish:
5. girl:
6. fellow:
7. pastime:
8. hobby:
9. process:
10. experience:

8. Thus a sentence with two NPs can produce two different modifying verbs depending on the transformation involved:

For example,

Mathematics interests Ahmed. —»
Mathematics is interest*ing*. OR
Ahmed is interest*ed*.

Write the two sentences with modifying verbs which you can derive from these sentences.

1. School bores Hawa.
   School is
   Hawa is

2. Work tires children
   Work is
   Children are

3. My reply surprized the officers.
   My reply was
   The officers were

4. The food satified Yusuf.
   The food was
   Yusuf was

5. The new master charmed the students.
   The new master
   The students

6. We respect the sheikh.
   We are respectful. (not all verbs can be used).
   The sheikh

7. The book disappointed me.
   The book
   I

8. Our work discourages us.
   Our work
   We

9. The success of our group excited the children.
   The success of our group
   The children

10. The war terrified everyone.
    The war
    Everyone

9. Through a long process of transformation we get certain common expressions which are quite useful. These words are verbs with BE. But each verb keeps a complement.

For example,

Learning English interests Amina. —» Amina is interested in learning English.

Notice *in* + (-ing).

OR

Mathematics interests Amina. —»

Amina is interested *in learning* mathematics.

Practicing tires me. —»

I am tired of practicing.

Classes bore Ali. —»

Ali is bored *with* classes.

Through different processes we get:

Abdi is accustomed to studying.

Abdi is used to studying.

Are you used to studying English?

Do you study English every day?

Are you accustomed to studying English?

Write a substitution drill with these expressions.

Ali is used to studying.

1. Amina:
2. accustomed to:
3. praying:
4. working:
5. bored with:
6. used to:
7. Ibrahim:
8. tired of:
9. bored with:
10. interested in:
11. learning Russian:
12. tired of:
13. loafing:
14. used to:
15. accustomed to:
16. bored with:
17. his work:
18. We:
19. tired of:
20. smoking:

10. Non-restrictive clauses are constructions that are formed in exactly the same fashion as ordinary relative clauses. But non-restrictive relative clauses do not serve as noun modifiers. They are extra, parenthetical pieces of information. For example,

My brother works in the hospital. +

My brother is a doctor: TREL —»

My brother, who works in the hospital, is a doctor.

If I have only one brother I need not specify which brother, since I have only one. In this case we punctuate the TREL (non-restrictive) like this: my brother, who works in the hospital, is a doctor. The commas are equivalent to parentheses.

The formula for TREL (non-restrictive) is:

$$X + NP + Y \longrightarrow NP + , \begin{pmatrix} \text{who} \\ \text{which} \\ \text{that} \end{pmatrix} + X + Y + ,$$

The commas are manifested in speech as a slight rise in the pitch of the voice.

Write these sentences making the relative clauses non-restrictive. Then read them aloud. For example,

We do our lessons every day. +
Our lessons are very useful. TREL (non-restrictive) —»
Our lessons, which we do every day, are very useful.

1. Our country became independent in 1960. +
   Our country has made some progress. —»

2. The last student in the class is my brother. +
   The last student in the class failed his course. —»

3. I never enjoyed swimming in rivers. +
   Swimming in rivers is dangerous. —»

4. I'm afraid of the ocean. +
   I hope we don't fly over the ocean. —»

5. The students from Zeila always finish their work. +
   The students from Zeila received the best grades. —»

6. Our principal is a learned man. +
   Our principal is speaking to us today. —»

7. My brother's son works for the Ministry of Agriculture. +

My brother's son recently received a raise in salary.—»

8. Our new furniture arrived yesterday. +

Our new furniture was made in Denmark. —»

9. Coffee is not for you. +

Coffee costs too much for me to buy. —»

10. Social disorganization was caused by industrialization. +

Social disorganization is strongly influenced by secularism and mobility. —»

11. Nominalizations are constructions in which a sentence becomes an NP. TNOM is the nominalization transformation.

For example,

Abdi milks the cows. +

It is easy: TNOM —»

For Abdi to milk the cows is easy.

Write these sentences with nominalizations for subjects. For example,

Ali fails tests. +

It is sad. TNOM —»

For Ali to fail tests is sad.

1. Amina swims across the lake every day. +
   It is easy —»
   For

2. Abdi reads Russian. + It is hard.
   For

3. Yusuf speaks Galla. + It is difficult.
   For

4. My cousin wins the prize + It is easy.
   For

5. Asha's mother marries my uncle. + It is expected.
For

6. Isaak gets an A grade in mathematics. + It isn't easy.
For

7. Abdi's friend's father died from the plague. + It was too bad. For

8. My daughter finished the course. + It was a surprise.
For

9. Abdullah speaks to them. + It is pleasant.
For

10. Our father comes home every evening. + It is good.
For

12. The nouns in these nominalizations can be pronouns, but noun —» pronoun + (-m), that is, object pronouns. Change each of the nouns in the NPs in the sentences in Section 11 to object pronouns. For example,

For Ali to fail tests is sad. —» For him to fail tests is sad.

13. A common transformation of the sentences in Sections 11 and 12 is the word-order transformation in which the nominalization trades places with the VP. For example,

For him to fail tests is sad. —» It is sad for him to fail tests.

Rewrite the sentences in Section 12, beginning each with *It*.

14. A literary nominalization is the deletion of For + NP in those we have been considering. This leaves the infinitive as the NP. For example.

For him to fail tests was unpleasant: DEL for + NP —»

To fail tests was unpleasant.

OR, the *perfect infinitive,* which means that the event already occurred: For example,

For him to have failed tests was unpleasant. —» To have failed tests was unpleasant.

We use the nominalizations only when everyone knows who the real underlying subject of the verb is. In the example above the real subject is Ali, but his name is hidden by the transformation.

15. Another nominalization involves the possessive morpheme. For example,

Abdi milks the cows every day. —» Abdi's milking the cows.... Such an NP can be used in any NP position. For instance,

Abdi's milking the cows is a mistake.

I don't think I want to agree to Abdi's milking the cows.

It seems that Abdi's milking the cows was the last thing he did.

Rewrite the sentences in Section 11, changing the nominalization to NP + (poss) + (-ing). For example,

Ali fails tests. —» Ali's failing tests is unpleasant.

16. The possessive nouns in such sentences can be changed to possessive pronouns when we all know whom we are referring to.

For example,

Ali's failing tests is unpleasant. —» His failing tests is unpleasant.

Change the proper nouns in the sentences in Section 11 to possessive pronouns.

17. Another word-order transformation of sentences with nominalizations is the following in which NP2 —» subject.

For him to milk the cows was easy. —»

The cows were easy for him to milk.

For us to swim in the river is easy. —»

The river is easy for us to swim in.

Change the word-order of these sentences according to the example.

1. For him to fly the plane is simple. —»
   The plane

2. For them to solve the problems was fun.
   The problems

3. For Asha to read Arabic is easy.
   Arabic

4. For Yusuf to speak Galla is impossible.
   Galla

5. For my friend to lose that race was unfortunate.
That race

6. For Isaak to get a B in geometry was tragic.
A B in geometry

7. For me to win the Latin prize was pleasant.
The Latin prize

8. For Ahmed to make a lot of money was easy.
A

9. For Abdi to repair the car was complicated.
The

10. For you to sell your books was wrong.
Your

18. A common kind of nominalization is what we call the subordinate clause.

S —» subordinator + S.

Thus, *He came,* a sentence, can become an NP with the subordinator *that:*

I know X. +
He came: TSUB —»
I know that he came.

The most usual subordinator is *that.* Subordinate clauses are added to sentences as subjects or as objects. For example,

I know X. +
You are the best student: TSUB —»
I know that you are the best student.

Or

X is what he said. +
You are the best student. —»
That you are the best student is what he said.

Combine the following sentences with subordinators.

1. X is well-known. +
You are going to be married. —»
That

2. Please tell me X. +
You will do the job.
Please

3. X was the reason for his dismissal. +
He was incompetent.
That

4. I didn't know X. +
You were a musician.

5. X is a fact of life. +
Some people are smarter than others.

6. There were several who said X. +
They wanted to take the job.

7. X is the reason I have come. +
You asked me to see what I could do.

8. Do you believe X? +
I think you are guilty.

9. X won't make any difference to me. +
You didn't finish the course.

10. Why did he insist X? +
There are no ways left for us.

19. Whenever the subordinate clause is the object of a verb, the word *that* can be deleted. For example,

> I want to know that he is successful. —» I want to know he is successful.

Rewrite numbers 2, 4, 6, 8, and 10 in Section 18, deleting *that*.

20. Other subordinators are *whether* and *if*. *Whether* is sometimes accompanied by *or not*. *Whether* indicates contingency, that is, that the statement depends on something outside immediate knowledge. For example,

> I know whether you are the best student.
> *Whether* you are the best student is what he talked about.

Whether or not you are going to be married is the question.
I didn't know if he was going to be dismissed.
Do you know if I think you are guilty?
I wonder if he knows about the game.

If and *whether,* as subordinators, mean the same.

Write a substitution drill.

I don't know whether he wants to go.

1. Amina doesn't:
2. if:
3. whether or not:
4. the class is meeting:
5. we:
6. if:
7. that:
8. didn't know:
9. he was a criminal:
10. subordination was so easy:

21. Relative clauses are also used as NPs. Relative words which introduce relative clauses are:

who (ever)
which (ever)
what (ever)
when (ever)
where (ever)
how (ever)
how much
how many
how far
how long
why

For example,

I know X. +
He stole the book: TREL —»
I know who stole the book. OR
I know what he stole.

These relatives can function as subjects. For example,

What he stole was my book.
Whomever you marry is acceptable to me.
Whoever gave me the money was a true friend.
Whichever you choose will please me.
When he arrives is a secret.
Where he hid the money is known only to him.
How he did it is the problem.
How much he paid is for him alone to know.
How many came is what we're trying to find out.
How far he walked is the unknown factor.
How long it continued determined our reaction.
Why he perservered remains a mystery.

Or these relative clauses function as objects. For example,

I'll give it to whoever asks for it.
I'll give it to whomever you designate.
We'll buy whichever we choose.
I refuse to do whatever he says.
I know how much he paid for it.

Etc. Discuss the meaning of the above examples.

Combine these sentences with TREL. For example,

X is all right with me. +
You marry him. TREL —»
Whomever you marry is all right with me.

1. X was my pen. +
   He took it. —»
   What .....

2. X was my enemy. +
   He told lies about me.
   Whoever .....

3. X will annoy me. +
You choose it.
Whichever .....

4. X is known to everyone. +
He arrives at 10 o'clock.
When .....

5. X was in a cave. +
He hid the money there.
Where .....

6. X became a problem. +
He did it that way.
How ....

7. X was unknown to everyone. +
He paid 10,000 shillings for it.
How much .....

8. X is a very large number. +
Forty people came.
How many .....

9. X is none of your business. +
He traveled very far.
How far ....

10. X will remain unknown. +
He kept working in order to stay alive.
Why .....

11. X was what we tried to find out. +
The play lasted for four hours.
How long .....

12. I'll give it to X. +
He demands it.
I'll give it to whoever .....

13. I'll give it to X. +
You choose her.
I'll give it to whomever .....

14. We want to get X. +
We can get one.
We want to get whichever .....

15. I categorically refuse to do X. +
He often tells me to do it.
I categorically refuse to do whatever .....

22. Compound nouns are of two sorts. — Those with heavier stress on the first part, and those with heavier stress on the second part. For example,

Some with stress on the first part of the compound:

milk bottle
hair pin
fruit juice
vegetable farm

Such compound nouns are specilized, specific names. Indeed, frequently such compounds are spelled as single words.

beekeeper
summertime
voltmeter
toothache
notebook
cupboard
houseboy
witchcraft
workman
bathroom

In each case the second noun is the head-noun. For instance, a beekeeper is a keeper, not a bee.

Compound nouns invariably derive from an underlying simple sentence which shows the relationship between the two nouns:

A bottle is for milk. —» It's a milk bottle.

A pin holds hair. —» It is a hair pin.

Juice comes from fruit. —» It's fruit juice.

Vegetables are grown on the farm. —» It's a vegetable farm.

He keeps bees. —» He's a beekeeper.

The time is in summer. —» It's summertime.

The meter measures volts. -» It's a voltmeter.

My tooth aches. —» I have a toothache.

I keep notes in a book. —» It's a notebook.

It's a board for cups. —» It's a cupboard.
The boy works in the house. —» He's a houseboy.
It is the craft of witches. —» It's witchcraft.
The man works. —» He is a workman.
We bathe in this room. --» It's a bathroom.

Answer the questions.

1. What is shoe leather?
2. What is a beer bottle?
3. What is a bus station?
4. What is a language problem?
5. What is a watchpocket
6. What is a pocketwatch?
7. What is a car factory?
8. What is a factory car?
9. What is a door knob?
10. What is a hair ribbon?
11. What is a door frame?
12. What is a table leg?
13. What is a floor plan?
14. What is stone house?
15. What is a gym floor?
16. What is a pants pocket?
17. What is a bread box?
18. What is tree sap?
19. What is a shirt button?
20. What is book paper?

23. The first noun in a compound is always uninflected, that is, singular.

Complete these sentences.

1. Stores where shoes are sold are .....
2. Cream that we put in our coffee is .....
3. Watches we wear on our wrists are .....

4. A factory where we produce dresses is .....
5. A lamp on a desk is .....
6. A check worth 100 Shillings is a 100 .....
7. A ticket for a trip on a bus is a .....
8. Cups made of paper are .....
9. A book from which we study history is .....
10. A table beside a bed is .....
11. A radio placed on a table is .....
12. Salad made of fruit is .....
13. A lesson that teaches English is .....
14. A store that consists of departments is .....
15. Shoes I play tennis in are .....
16. Spoons we eat soup with are .....
17. Dresses girls wear in the evening are .....
18. A cover for the typewriter is .....
19. The binding of our books is the .....
20. A bottle which holds ink is .....

24. Explain the meaning of each of these compound nouns.

fruit cake
world war
bookmobile
cheeseburger
kidney bean
gridiron
shoulder blade
car load
emancipation proclamation
prize fighter
newspaper
pineapple
gunnery sergeant
oxbow
chicken house
doll house
discount house
fingernail
church service
cornerstone
key signature
key note
desk drawer
desk top
cornbread
raisin bread
glassware
paper goods

power transmission
security regulations
paperweight
grasshopper
cornmeal
airmail
armchair
eyetooth
barbwire
bowknot
deathbed
matchbox
matchstick
town house

boy friend
baby sitter
night train
seed case
stove pipe
grandfather clock
stovepipe hat
newspaper man
mail-order house
store owner
short-term loan
Jim Crow law
magazine cover
soup beef

25. A few compound nouns are not so easy to understand, because of their metaphorical derivation. Look up these words in your dictionary:

paperback
egghead
leatherneck
butterfingers

foolscap
secretary bird
battle wagon
bellwether

26. Many nouns contain more than two elements. For example, the label on a bottle of ink can be called the ink-bottle label. To construct such manifold nouns read the underlying sentence backwards. For example,

> A *pin* that connects the two halves of the *hinge* that holds the *top* of the *desk* is a *desk-top hinge pin.* Remember that the nouns are uninflected.

Try to understand these manifold nouns. Complete these sentences.

1. A *case* in which I keep my *glasses* is a .....
2. The *equipment* with which we play *baseball* is .....
3. The *lock* on the *box* where we keep the *keys* to the *dormitories* is .....

4. The *punch* with which we make holes in *paper* is .....

5. The *container* in which we keep our *books* that we use as texts in *biology* class is the .....

6. The *radio* that we won in the *competition* among the *dormitories* is ....

7. The *cover* on the *switch* connected to the *valve* that discharges *hot water* is the .....

8. The needle in the gauge that records the amount of petrol in the tank is the .....

9. The button that releases the spring that pushes down the refill tube of the ball-point pen is the .....

10. The cover on the switch that regulates the replay of the tape recorder is the .....

27. Some compound nouns have the stress on the second element. This is the same stress pattern as adjective-noun. Whenever two nouns have this stress pattern, the first noun identifies the kind or variety of thing the second noun refers to. Examples are:

some chocolate milk   some plain milk   some milk chocolate

a leather shoe	a cloth shoe	a rubber shoe
some bottle beer	some can beer	some draft beer
some beef stew	some Irish stew	some lamb stew

a winter coat
some vegetable soup
a baby boy
the town hall
the corner store

a spring coat
a glass pendant
with kid gloves
some rye bread
a woman driver

Thus, each of these compound nouns is less specific than those with stress on the first element, being one of many varieties of the thing referred to. Look up the examples in your dictionary. Know what they mean.

28. Compound nouns are derived from joining transformations. Rewrite each set of sentences, joining the nouns. Example:

He works in a factory. + It makes cars. —»

He works in a car factory.

1. He is eating grapes. + They come from Dar-es-Salam. —»
2. They are students. + They study engineering.
3. She is a student. + She studies biology.
4. He went to a store. + It sells shoes.
5. They went to a restaurant. + They went on Main Street.
6. John is a student. + He goes to the university.
7. They are workers. + They work on the railroad.
8. We ate a dinner. + We ate steak.
9. They are workers. + They work on a farm.
10. The students gave a program. + They gave it Friday night.
11. We played a game. + It was baseball.
12. They like fishing. + They fish in the river.
13. The building is on State Street. + It is a bank.
14. He is a worker. + He works on automobiles.
15. He is a student. + He studies science.

CHAPTER FIVE

VERB INFLECTION, PRONUNCIATION AND SPELLING

1. In English the verb changes its form, depending on several things.

An infinitive is *to* + the common form of the verb.

For example,

to eat

to go

to sleep

There must be a verb in a VP.

We can say something using only one word in the verb phrase (VP). For example,

I *eat.*

Eat is the common form of the verb.

What kind of word must be in a verb phrase?

Usually there is more than one word in the verb phrase.

The other words in the verb phrase may be noun phrases, adverbial phrases, or adjective phrases.

We are not concerned here with noun phrases, adverbial phrases, or adjective phrases.

We are concerned with verbs.

List the verb used in each sentence.

1. He says «hello» to me.
2. He speaks English.
3. She explained the lesson.
4. Amina asked me a question.
5. We talk to him every day.
6. He introduced him to her.
7. Ali described his country.
8. The teacher announced the examination.
9. I reported the accident to the police.

Notice the differences in the verbs in these sentences.

A. I *eat* bananas.

B. He *eats* bananas.

C. He *ate* bananas.

Verbs are inflected to show number and tense.

The lack of (s) on *eat* in the sentence «I eat bananas» means that the subject of *eat* is not the third person singular.

What is the third person singular?

If the subject of the verb is the third person singular, what do we add to the verb?

The (s) on *eat*, in the sentence «He eats bananas», means that the subject of the verb is the third person singular.

Tense is a change in the spelling of the verb in writing and a change in the sounds of the verb in speaking that means several things. It usually means that the event you are talking about or writing about happened in the past.

What is the past tense form of *eat*?

So, each verb is spelled and pronounced in different ways depending on the number and person of the subject, and on the tense.

On what does the spelling and pronunciation of the verb depend?

What is the common form of the verb *eat*?

What is the past tense form of the verb *eat*?

Inflect the verb *eat* with (s).

Inflect the verb *eat* with (ZERO).

What is the infinitive of the verb *eat*?

Notice the forms of the verbs in these sentences.

I ate bananas yesterday.

He ate bananas yesterday.

Why is there no (-s)?

2. Most verbs can have three forms. For example:

eat, eats, ate.

What are the three forms of each of the following verbs.

give
tell
write
sell
lend
pass
teach
read

come
become
meet
sit
drink
get
forget
see

tear
wear
speak
break
wake up
choose
take
know

(tense)
3. You know that (person) + verb =

A. (tense + verb) = the past form of the verb.

or

B. (person + verb) = the common form of the verb *or* the (-s) form of the verb.

The most often-used verbs form the past tense by changing a vowel sound and a spelling letter.

What are the past forms of these verbs?

fight
hang

bleed
dig

feed
bite

4. Many verbs form the past tense by changing a vowel sound and a consonant sound, and by changing spelling letters.

What are the past tense forms of these verbs?

do
feel
sleep
mean
leave
say

go
hear
think
bring
buy
teach

tell
sell
stand
understand
withstand
sit

5. Many verbs form the past tense by adding the (-ed) past inflection.

What are the past tense forms of these verbs?

study
work
walk
rain
return
visit
look
talk
repeat
complete
encourage
settle

6. Some verbs form the past tense by changing only one letter and one consonant sound.

What are the past forms of these verbs?

send
spend
lend
make
build
bend

7. Some verbs form the past tense by adding (ZERO).

What are the past tense forms of these verbs?

put
cut
cost
burst
cast
bet
bid
hit
hurt
let
quit
set
shed
slit
split
spread
wet
write

8. The (-s) inflection is pronounced /-S/, /-Z/, or /-IZ/, depending on the way the verb is pronounced.

Example: eats /-S/
buy /-Z/
catches /-IZ/

9. Write this substitution drill and pronounce each sentence aloud. Listen carefully to the pronunciation of the (-S) inflection ending on each verb.

He *gives* me some money every day.

1. lends: /-Z/
2. gets: /-S/
3. brings: /-Z/
4. leaves: /-Z/
5. sells: /-Z/
6. buys: /-Z/

7. sends: /-Z/
8. makes: /-S/
9. costs: /-S/
10. bets: /-S/

Notice that some verbs end in the /-S/ sound, and others end in the /-Z/ sound. The /-Z/ sound follows voiced sounds, and the /-S/ sound follows voiceless (whispered) sounds, with the exception noted in Section 10.

10. If the common form of the verb ends in the sounds /S/, or /Z/, or /SH/ or /ZH/, we add the sound /-IZ/ to make the (-s) inflection.

catch ——» catches /-IZ/
patch ——» patches /-IZ/
match ——» matches /-IZ/
cadge ——» cadges /-IZ/
dodge ——» dodges /-IZ/
rage ——» rages /-IZ/
pass ——» passes /-IZ/
mass ——» masses /-IZ/
kiss ——» kisses /-IZ/
phase ——» phases /-IZ/
raze ——» razes /-IZ/
praise ——» praises /-IZ/

Learn to pronounce the above verbs.

11. But verbs that end in other sounds take /-S/ or /-Z/.

Which verbs take (-s), pronounced /-IZ/?

Verbs that end in voiced sounds take /-Z/.

buy ——» buys /-Z/
form ——» forms /-Z/
cry ——» cries /-Z/
trade ——» trades /-Z/
go ——» goes /-Z/

Learn to pronounce the above verbs.

12. Verbs that end in voiceless sounds take /-S/.

take ——» takes /-S/
hope ——» hopes /-S/
hate ——» hates /-S/
work ——» works /-S/

Learn to pronounce the above verbs.

13. How do you pronounce these verbs? Copy the list and put /-S/, /-Z/, or /-IZ/ after each one.

meets
reads
sits
bites
finds
fights
shines
hangs
stings
digs
wins
bleeds
sweeps
keeps
feeds

holds
feels
sleeps
means
leaves
says
hears
thinks
brings
buys
teaches
tells
sells
stands
understands

loses
sends
spends
lends
makes
has
bends
builds
cuts
puts
costs
lets
sets
shuns
fills

14. The (tense) inflection is pronounced /-t/, /-d/ or /-Id/ on many verbs, depending on the way the verb is pronounced and on whether the verb takes the (tense) inflection by changing in the ways discussed in this chapter. For example,

mapped	/-t/
sprayed	/-d/
repeated	/-Id/

If the common form of the verb ends in the sounds /t/ or /d/, we add the sounds /-Id/ to make the (tense) inflection, if the verb is a *weak* verb.

A weak verb is a verb that does not form the (tense) inflection by changing a vowel, a vowel and a consonant, or a consonant. A weak verb adds /-t/, /-d/, or /-Id/ to make the (tense) inflection.

What is a weak verb?

When do we add the sounds /Id/ to the common form of a weak verb?

Here are some verbs that take /-Id/.

repeat	——»	repeated	/-Id/
seat	——»	seated	/-Id/
sight	——»	sighted	/-Id/
elide	——»	elided	/-Id/
side	——»	sided	/-Id/
explode	——»	exploded	/-Id/

Here are some verbs that take /-d/.

spray	——»	sprayed	/-d/
key	——»	keyed	/-d/
lay	——»	laid	/-d/
sow	——»	sowed	/-d/

Here are some verbs that take /-t/.

map	——»	mapped	/-t/
cash	——»	cashed	/-t/
track	——»	tracked	/-t/
base	——»	based	/-t/

15. How do you pronounced the (tense) forms of these verbs? Write the past form after each verb, and write the sound symbols /-t/, /-d/, or /Id/ after each past form. Copy the list first.

learn
plan
need
like
try
want
expect
ask
invite

persuade
permit
urge
watch
observe
advise
wreck
wish
arrive

16. When we inflect weak verbs with (tense) sometimes the spelling of the verb changes.

When the verb is one syllable, and ends in a single consonant, and has a single vowel letter in it, then we double the final consonant letter and add *ed*. Spell the (-ed) forms of these verbs, then pronounce them with /-d/ or /-t/. For example.

plan ——» planned
stop ——» stopped
drag
drop
flop
mop
mob
stub
stab
cup

17. When a verb of more than one syllable ends in a consonant, and has a single vowel letter in the final syllable, and the final syllable is stressed, then we double the final consonant and add *ed*. Spell the (-ed) forms of these verbs.

omit ——» omitted
occur
remit
transfer
demur
concur

18. When the verb ends in *y* preceded by a consonant, we change the *y* to *i* and add (-ed). Spell the (-ed) forms of these verbs.

carry ——» carried
hurry
study
fly (not flew)
shy

19. Change the verbs in Section 13 to the (-ed) form. Pronounce each one correctly.

20. These verbs take (-ed) pronounced /-t/. The vowel in each word is very short in duration because the final consonant in the stem is voiceless. Spell them correctly and pronounce them correctly. For example,

chip —» chipped /chipt/

clip
dip
flip
rip
ship
trip
whip
zip
click
kick
lick
pick
flick
prick
slick
tick
trick
itch
stitch
etch
filtch

sketch
hatch
match
touch
watch
bleach
breach
laugh
bluff
cough
hiss
kiss
miss
pass
dish
wish
mesh
cash
clash
mash
brush

rush
wash
fix
mix
tax
box
coax
risk
mask
husk
clamp
cramp
camp
skimp
limp
launch
inch
pinch
lunch
punch
bunch

21. These verbs take -ed pronounced /-d/. The vowel in each word is very long in duration because the final consonant in the stem is voiced. Spell them correctly and pronounce them correctly. For example,

fib —» fibbed /fIbd/

jab
stab
club

lodge
age
cage

can
bill
drill

rub
scrub
sob
bribe
cube
probe
rib
beg
brag
gag
drag
drug
plug
clog
flog
dog
bridge
dredge
edge
pledge
judge
dodge

rev
calve
halve
salve
love
glove
heave
grieve
pave
save
fizz
quiz
cause
pause
ease
seize
squeeze
sneeze
tease
chin
fin
grin

fill
kill
will
spill
spell
dull
pull
call
clear
smear
dare
stare
scare
scar
fire
tire
lunge
flange
fringe
hinge
cringe
singe

22. The verbs in Section 20 take the (-s) inflection, pronounced /-S/ or /-IZ/. Write the correct forms of all the verbs in Section 20 and pronounce the (-s) inflection correctly. For example,

Chip —» chips /chIps/

23. The verbs in Section 21 take the (-s) inflection, pronounced /-Z/ or /-IZ/. Write the correct forms of all verbs in Section 21 and pronounce the (-s) inflection correctly. For example,

fib —» fibs /fIbz/

What do all the verbs in Sections 20 and 21 mean?

24. It is very important to know how to spell, understand, and pronounce the principal parts of English strong verbs. The principal parts of verbs are:

1. The Common Form
2. The Past Form
3. The Past Participle

The common form of *eat* is *eat.*
The past form of *eat* is *ate.*
The past participle of *eat* is *eaten.*

That is,
eat + ZERO —» eat.
eat + (-ed) —» ate.
eat + (-en) —» eaten.

Learn the principal parts of these verbs.

Common (ZERO)	Past (-ed)	Past Participle (-en)
A		
tell	told	told
shoe	shod	shod
sell	sold	sold
say	said	said
pay	paid	paid
lay	laid	laid
hear	heard	heard
have	had	had
flee	fled	fled
make	made	made

B

weep	wept	wept
think	thought	thought
teach	taught	taught
sweep	swept	swept
sleep	slept	slept
seek	sought	sought
mean	meant	meant
lose	lost	lost
leave	left	left
kneel	knelt	knelt
keep	kept	kept
feel	felt	felt
deal	dealt	dealt
creep	crept	crept
catch	caught	caught
buy	bought	bought
bring	brought	brought

C

wind	wound	wound
win	won	won
strike	struck	struck
stick	stuck	stuck
stand	stood	stood
slide	slid	slid
sit	sat	sat
shoot	shot	shot
shine	shone	shone
read	read	read
meet	met	met
light	lit	lit
lead	led	led

hold	held	held
hang	hung	hung
grind	ground	ground
find	found	found
fight	fought	fought
feed	fed	fed
dig	dug	dug
come	came	come
breed	bred	bred
bleed	bled	bled
bind	bound	bound

D

wring	wrung	wrung
swing	swung	swung
string	strung	strung
sting	stung	stung
spin	spun	spun
slink	slunk	slunk
sling	slung	slung
fling	flung	flung
cling	clung	clung

E

stink	stank	stunk
spring	sprang	sprung
sink	sank	sunk
sing	sang	sung
shrink	shrank	shrunk
ring	rang	rung
swim	swam	swum
drink	drank	drunk
begin	began	begun

F

write	wrote	written
weave	wove	woven
wear	wore	worn
tread	trod	trodden
throw	threw	thrown
tear	tore	torn
take	took	taken
swear	swore	sworn
strive	strove	striven
stride	strode	stridden
steal	stole	stolen
speak	spoke	spoken
smite	smote	smitten
slay	slew	slain
shake	shook	shaken
see	saw	seen
rise	rose	risen
ride	rode	ridden
lie	lay	lain
know	knew	known
hide	hid	hidden
grow	grew	grown
go	went	gone
give	gave	given
get	got	gotten (got)
freeze	froze	frozen
forsake	forsook	forsaken
fly	flew	flown
fall	fell	fallen
eat	ate	eaten
drive	drove	driven

draw	drew	drawn
do	did	done
choose	chose	chosen
break	broke	broken
blow	blew	blown
bite	bit	bitten
beat	beat	beaten
bear	bore	borne

25. Rewrite each sentence according to the model.

They came yesterday. —» They come every day.

1. He ate breakfast yesterday.
2. I met him yesterday.
3. He gave me a cigarette yesterday.
4. He read it yesterday.
5. It became dark at six yesterday.
6. I sat here yesterday.
7. I began to write yesterday.
8. I got a letter yesterday.
9. I drank eight glasses of water yesterday.
10. I forgot my book yesterday.
11. I saw your car yesterday.
12. I tore my paper yesterday.
13. I wore my shoes yesterday.
14. I spoke to Ali yesterday.
15. I broke my nose yesterday.
16. I chose a wife yesterday.
17. I woke up early yesterday.
18. I took a bath yesterday.
19. I knew it was wrong yesterday.
20. I came to school yesterday.
21. I gave up smoking yesterday.

26. Example: I didn't eat the pie yesterday. —» I ate it this morning.

1. I didn't choose the flowers yesterday. —»
2. I didn't break any dishes yesterday.
3. I didn't read it yesterday.
4. I didn't tear my shirt yesterday.
5. He didn't become president yesterday.
6. I didn't meet him yesterday.
7. I didn't give him any money yesterday.
8. I didn't sit here yesterday.
9. They didn't speak French yesterday.
10. I didn't begin my work yesterday.
11. We didn't foget our books yesterday.
12. We didn't see his wife yesterday.
13. We didn't drink coffee yesterday.
15. I didn't wear my new shoes yesterday.
14. I didn't get the letter yesterday
16. I didn't wake up at six o'clock yesterday.

27. Example: What did you send? —» I sent a box.

1. Where did you spend So. Sh. 10? —»
2. When did you lend it?
3. What did you make? —»
4. What did you have? —»
5. What did you cut? —»
6. Where did you put it? —»
7. How much did it cost? —»
8. Where did you send it? —»
9. How much did you spend? —»
10. How much did you lend? —»
11. How much did you bet? —»
12. What did it hit? —»
13. What did you let him do?
14. When did you quit? —»
15. What did he shut? —»
16. What did he hurt? —»
17. What burst? —»

28. Example: They did the exercises a week ago. —» They do them every week.

1. I felt fine this morning. —»
2. He meant that yesterday.
3. They left school yesterday. —»
4. They said «thank you» yesterday. —»
5. Abdi went to class this morning. —»
6. I heard the speeches this morning. —»
7. I thought about it this morning. —»
8. We brought some books yesterday.
9. Asha taught mathematics yesterday.
10. He told me the answers yesterday.
11. I sold him some books a week ago.
12. I stood here this morning.

29. Substitute the words given in each sentence. For example,
I wanted breakfast yesterday.
ate:
I ate breakfast yesterday.

1. every day:
2. make:
3. coffee:
4. we:
5. yesterday:
6. have:
7. every day:
8. drink:
9. yesterday:
10. every morning:
11. bring:
12. yesterday:
13. bought:
14. a car:
15. every year:
16. I:
17. sell:
18. a year ago:
19. he:

20. every year:
21. chooses:
22. several days ago:
23. saw:
24. every five minutes:

30. Write out a negative perfect clause beginning with *but* for each verb listed. Include the object *it* if the verb takes an object. Use the (-en) form of the verb. For example,

read (it) But I haven't read it yet.
sit.............. But I haven't sat here since eight o'clock.

bite (it)
find (it)
fight......................
shine......................
hang (it)
repeat (it)
dig (it)
win (it)
bleed......................
sweep (it)
keep (it)
feed (it)
feel (it)
sleep......................
mean (it)
leave (it)
say (it)
hear (it)
think (it)
bring (it)
buy (it)
teach (it)
tell (it)
sell (it)
stand......................
understand (it)
lose (it)

spend (it)
lend (it)
make (it)
have (it)
bend (it)
play (it)
build (it)
cut (it)
put (it there)
construct (it)
study (it)
cost very much....
let (it)
set (it)
settle (it)
specialize...........
come ....
begin (it)
drink (it)
run (it)
eat (it)
take (it)
get (it)
write (it)
play (it)
sing (it)
swim......................

see (it)
draw (it)
fly (it)
throw (it)
grew (ti)
blow (it)
ride (it)
rise......................
drive (it)
shake (it)
fall......................
get (it)
forget (it)
tear (it)
wear (it)
swear (it)
steal (it)
freeze (it)
lie......................
speak (it)
choose (it)
do (it)
go.............................
be one ....
spill (it)
meet him ....
move (it)

CHAPTER SIX

VERBS PHRASE FORMATIVES

1. The English verb can be expanded to have five possible parts in addition to the verb itself:

1		2		3		4
(past)		(auxiliary)		(perfect)		(progressive)
(inflection)	+	(modal)	+	(have + en)	+	(be + ing)

	5		
	(passive)		
+	(be + en)	+	verb

That is, the *verb* can be expanded to include any or all of these five parts.

The verb is part of the verb phrase.

Sometimes the verb is *all* of the verb phrase.

In this chapter you will practice putting together the verb formatives in all their possible combinations.

2. We can say something using only one word in the verb phrase. For example,

I eat.

I eat means that I usually, regularly eat at the times already determined in the conversation. That is, the *time* that we refer to is always part of every sentence, and if we do not specify the *time,* it is because the people involved in our conversation already know the *time* we are talking about.

3. We can say:

I eat every day at six o'clock.

Which phrase in the above sentence specifies the time?

4. Read this dialogue:

Abdi: What do you do every day at six o'clock?
Bille: I eat.

What is understood about *time* in Bille's answer to Abdi's question?

5. The *time* referred to in the above dialogue is past time (those days which Bille is talking about when he ate at six o'clock), and present *time* (today when Bille ate, or is eating, or will eat), and future *time* (those days in the future when Bille will eat at six o'clock). This *time* is not specific. It is *common* time.

6. *Time* is not *tense.*

7. *Time* is referred to in many ways in English, but usually with an adverbial phrase or with a noun phrase. Here are some prepositional adverbial phrases that refer to time:

in an hour
after his lunch
before school
for five minutes

Here are some noun phrases that refer to *time:*

next year
the day before yesterday
tomorrow
last week

Tense is not *time.*

8. *Tense* is one form of *inflection.* We inflect the verb to agree with the number and person of the subject or with the *tense* of the sentence. The *tense* is determined by several things. Usually when the sentence refers to past completed *time,* we inflect the verb to agree with the past *tense.* We also inflect the verb to agree with the past *tense* for reasons other than past *time.*

9. The form of the verb that is not inflected is called the *common* form of the verb. In the sentence *I eat,* the verb *eat* has common form. The verb has three inflected forms. The ZERO inflection causes the verb to have the same form as the common form.

inflection —» (-s, -ed, ZERO)

The verb can have the ZERO inflection to make it agree with the number and person of the subject, or the verb can have the -s inflection to make it agree with the number of the subject, or it can have the -ed inflection to make it past *tense.* Write the four forms of the verb *eat.*

1. common form:
2. ZERO form:
3. -s form:
4. -ed form:

10. We call the past tense form the -ed form because most verbs simply add *-ed* to the common form to make it past *tense.*

The past tense form of *eat* is *ate.*

The past tense form of *study* is *studied.*

The past tense form of *cut* is *cut.*

11. Read Section 1 again now. Whenever we add any of the possible parts to a verb, we add them in the order listed. If the verb is not inflected we may add any of the other four parts. If we add any of the other four parts we may not inflect the verb. For example, examine the verbs in these sentences.

1. I eat breakfast every day (ZERO inflection)
2. He eats breakfast every day. (-s inflection)
3. I ate breakfast every day. (past inflection)
4. I may eat breakfast tomorrow. (modal)
5. I have eaten breakfast today. (perfect)

The verbs in sentences 1, 2, and 3 are inflected.

The verbs in sentences 4 and 5 are not inflected.

The verb in sentence 4 has the *modal* word *may* added to it.

The verb in sentence 5 has the *perfect* formative *have* + (-en) added to it. Notice that the *perfect* form of the verb is *present* or *common* tense, not *past* tense.

12. There are many *modal* words which are usually added to the common forms of verbs to show futurity. Some *modals* are:

1. can
2. must
3. may
4. will
5. shall

Place each of these modals in the VP of this sentence:
«I eat tomorrow». (I *can* eat tomorrow. I may eat.... etc.)

13. The perfect formative is used whenever we did something in the past which is relevant or important at the time the sentence refers to. You might ask your friend, for example:

«Have you eaten yet?»
and your friend might answer you:
«Yes, I have».

-- Meaning, of course, «Yes, I have eaten».

Your friend tells you in this manner that he ate recently, and the fact that he ate recently is *now* important to you. The *perfect* formatives are common tense, unless they are changed to the past *tense* by inflecting the word *have*. What tense is the VP in this sentence: «I have bought my textbooks already»?

Have eaten is the perfect form of the verb phrase. It is:

Perfect —» have + (-en) + verb.

Note that we inflect *have* to agree with the subject in number. We say, for instance, *He has eaten.*

We add the -en morpheme to the verb. We call the -en morpheme + the verb the *past participle* of the verb.

14. The past participle forms of verbs are usually the same as the past *tense* forms.

verb —» past participle: (-en)
walk —» walked
play —» played

But: eat —» eaten

However: build —» built
buy —» bought
expect —» expected
promise —» promised
go —» gone, etc.

15. The *progressive* form of the verb is BE + -ing + verb.
progressive —» be + -ing + verb.

The *progressive* form is used whenever it is important to say that something is happening at a particular moment in time. By itself it always refers to the immediate present.

I am talking and

He is reading mean that these things are happening now.

We inflect be to agree with the subject. --- «He *is*.... I *am*.... you *are*».

I was talking when you entered the room means that at that point in time when you entered the room, I was engaged in the act of talking That is, the two actions (talking and entering) coincided. The -ing form of the verb is called the present participle.

16. The passive form of the verb involves a transformation of a simple sentence with a transitive verb. A transitive verb is usually one which can be followed in the VP by a NP object. For example,

This food is eaten by the students.

comes from the underlying sentence:

The students eat this food.

The students is thus the true subject, and *this food* the true object.

These two sentences mean the same, but in the first sentence *this food* is emphasized; it would be used in a context which contrasts *this food* with, perhaps, *that food.* For example:

This food is eaten by the students, but that food is eaten by the teachers.

Note that the passive is formed this way:

passive —» BE + -EN + VERB

Again the -en form, the past participle, is used in the VP. See Section 14.

17. Answer these questions. Write the name of the formative which you would use to cause the stated change in the meaning of the VP. That is, which formative do we add to the verb to:

1. agree with *He* as subject?
2. indicate present relevance?
3. show past time?
4. to show futurity?
5. to indicate that an event occurred yesterday?
6. to show that something has already been done?
7. to show that what happened in the past is now important?
8. to indicate that the action is finished?
9. to show that one has the ability to do something?
10. to say that it is now important that you did something in the past?
11. to say that something is happening now?
12. to indicate an occurrence that hasn't happened again since 1960?
13. to say that something might happen next year?
14. to show that you have done something many times?
15. to state that one thing occurs while another thing is happening?
16. to state that one thing is happening when another thing occurs?

17. to emphasize that something is happening at his moment?
18. to state that something was done?
19. to shift emphasis from the true subject to the object?
20. to say that something usually or always happens?

18. All English verb phrases are combinations of these five formatives and/or a verb. There must be a verb in a VP. When you learn to form English verb phrases with these formatives, you will have mastered the English verb phrase.

past		auxiliary		perfect		progressive		passive	
	+		+		+		+		+ verb
inflection		modal		have+-en		be+-ing		be+-en	

These five formatives can occur in *any* combination, depending on the emphasis and meaning and time-relation of the sentence. They always occur in the order given:

1+2+3+4+5+verb; or, 1+3+verb; or, 2+4+5+verb; or 3+5+verb, and so on.

19. Here are the combinations of verb formatives which are possible:

1. 1 inflection (past) (+ verb, of course)
2. 2 modal (future) (+ verb)
3. 3 perfect (relevance) (+ verb)
4. 4 progressive (continuousness) (etc.)
5. 5 passive (emphasis on object)
6. 1+2 inflection + modal (past form of the modal)
7. 1+3 inflection + perfect (past perfect)
8. 1+4 inflection + progressive (past progressive)
9. 1+5 inflection + passive (past passive)
10. 2+3 modal + perfect
11. 2+4 modal + progressive
12. 2+5 modal + passive
13. 3+4 perfect + progressive
14. 3+5 perfect + passive
15. 4+5 progressive + passive
16. 1+2+3 inflection + modal + perfect
17. 1+2+4 inflection + modal + progressive

18. 1+2+5 inflection + modal + passive
19. 1+3+4 inflection + perfect + progressive
20. 1+3+5 inflection + perfect + passive
21. 1+4+5 inflection + progressive + passive
22. 2+3+4 modal + perfect + progressive
23. 2+3+5 modal + perfect + passive
24. 2+4+5 modal + progressive + passive
25. 3+4+5 perfect + progressive + passive
26. 1+2+3+4 inflection + modal + perfect + progressive
27. 1+3+4+5 inflection + perfect + progressive + passive
28. 1+2+4+5 inflection + modal + progressive + passive
29. 1+2+3+5 inflection + modal + perfect + passive
30. 2+3+4+5 modal + perfect + progressive + passive
31. 1+2+3+4+5 inflection + modal + perfect + progressive + passive

20. Here are examples of all the possible verb phrase formatives in combination with the verb *eat*.

1. 1 He eats it.. (or, He ate it.) (every day, or, last night)
2. 2 He will eat it. (soon)
3. 3 He has eaten it. (already)
4. 4 He is eating it. (now)
5. 5 It is eaten. (every day)
6. 1+2 He would eat it. (-ed+will) (if.....)
7. 1+3 He had eaten it. (before.....)
8. 1+4 He was eating it. (while.....)
9. 1+5 It was eaten. (last night)
10. 2+3 He will have eaten it. (before tomorrow)
11. 2+4 He will be eating it. (when you see him)
12. 2+5 It will be eaten. (in the future)
13. 3+4 He has been eating it. (for years)
14. 3+5 It has been eaten. (already)
15. 4+5 It is being eaten. (now)

16. 1+2+3 He would have eaten it. (if.....)

17. 1+2+4 He would be eating it. (if.....)

18. 1+2+5 It would be eaten. (if.....)

19. 1+3+4 He had been eating it. (before.....)

20. 1+3+5 It had been eaten. (before.....)

21. 1+4+5 It was being eaten. (when.....)

22. 2+3+4 He will have been eating it. (for three months then)

23. 2+3+5 It will have been eaten. (by then)

24. 2+4+5 It will be being eaten. (then)

25. 3+4+5 It has been being eaten. (for a long time)

26. 1+2+3+4 He would have been eating it. (if.....)

27. 1+3+4+5 It had been being eaten. (before......)

28. 1+2+4+5 It would be being eaten. (if.....)

29. 1+2+3+5 It would have been eaten. (if....)

30. 2+3+4+5 It will have been being eaten. (for three months then)

31. 1+2+3+4+5 It would have been being eaten. (if.....)

21. The verb formative are added together in this way.
past auxiliary perfect progressive passive
inflection + modal + have+en + be+ing + be+en + verb

That is, each formative on the left can be added to any or all of those on the right. But when you choose the perfect formative, the morpheme -en must be added to the following word. Similarly, when you choose the progressive formative, the morpheme -ing must be added to the following word. Likewise, when you choose the passive formative, the morpheme -en must be added to the *verb*

For example,

inflection + verb ——» He *ate* my bread.
modal + verb ————» He will eat my bread tomorrow.
perfect + verb ——» He has eaten it already.
progressive + verb —» He is eating it now.
passive + verb ——» It is eaten every day.

Using the sentences in the examples as models, write new sentences according to these formulas.

1. inflection + perfect. —» He had eaten it before you arrived yesterday.

2. Inflection + progressive. —»
3. inflection + passive. —»
4. modal + perfect. —»
5. modal + progressive
6. modal + passive
7. inflection + modal + perfect + progressive
8. inflection + perfect + progressive
9. modal + perfect + passive
10. progressive + passive

22. Obviously, certain combinations of verb formatives are used more often than others. So it is not terribly important for you to be able to use, say, number 31 in Section 20, the inflection-modal-perfect-progressive-passive.

What is important is that you know how and when to use each of the five formatives and the aspects of meaning they entail. It is good to think of the meaning of the formatives rather than of such inappropriate concepts as *tenses. Past perfect,* for instance, should not suggest a tense to you; rather it should mean that something happened in the past before something else which happened in the past, and the first thing was relevant to the second. That is, if I say «I had studied French before I came to this school», I am saying that first I studied French, and secondly I came to this school, and further, the fact of this sequence of events was important when I came to this school, presumably because I was then about to study French again, or not to study French, or some such situation.

The meaning of each verb formative is very important for you to understand. If you understand the verb formatives, then you should be able to understand them in combination because the formatives combine by simple addition, and so do their meanings.

For example, these sentences show the addition of formatives.

1. I can swim. (now and in the future) modal
2. I could swim. (when I was a child) (past + ability) (-ed + modal)
3. I am swimming. (now) be + ing.
4. I can be swimming. (at three o'clock tomorrow) modal be + ing.
5. I could have been swimming. (at three o'clock yesterday) -ed + modal + have + en +be + ing.

Explain the meanings of each of the above VPs very carefully.

23. Inflection —» (-s, ZERO, -ed)

To inflect the verb we choose the correct form to agree with the subject, *or* we choose the correct past tense form. These two are mutually exclusive. That is, if you use the past tense, you cannot inflect the verb to agree with the subject.

The past form of the verb is used whenever the sentence refers to past time which is finished, or whenever the sentence refers to a hypothetical or untrue situation. Frequently the past form collocates with *if* or *wish*. That is, the past form -ed means:

A. past time
or
B. hypothetical situation

The words *if* or *wish* often precede the verb if the sentence is about something that didn't happen or a situation that is not actual but hypothetical.

Remember that time is usually referred to in an adverb phrase in addition to the verb.

24 Change these sentences to past time and past tense.

For example,

Ali meets the new people every day. —» Ali met the new people yesterday.

1. They come to the market every day. —»
2. We learn how to sew in this class. —»
4. Ali becomes angry when I talk to him. —»
5. We visit our parents every year. —»
6. You sit in this chair ever day. —»
7. We begin to study every day at two o'clock. —»
8. They study their lessons at night. —»
9. I always bite off the thread when I'm finished. —»
10. Asha drinks camel's milk every day.

25. Another way to express past time is with the words *used to*. This is added to the verb, instead of the -ed morpheme, to make the VP refer to past actions which recurred, were repeated many times, or were habitual. This special form is pronounced (yùsta).

A sentence with *used to* always refers to a long period of time in the past which is now finished. Usually there is an additional adverb phrase added to the sentence to specify the pediod of time.

Change the sentences in Section 24 to include *used to*. Add the adverb clause «when we were children» to each sentence.

For example,

Ali met the new people yesterday. —» Ali used to meet the new people every day when we were children.

26. Change these sentences to past tense, but note that the time of each sentence remains common or present. For example,

I don't have a new suit. +
I wish. —»
I wish I had a new suit.

«I wsh I had a new suit» means that I don't a new suit, and I want one. *Have a new suit* is a hypothetical situation here.

1. I don't practice English pronunciation every day. + I wish .....
2. He doesn't sing better than Abdi. + I wish .....
3. He doesn't walk home every night. + I wish .....
4. He doesn't fight hard. + I wish .....
5. He doesn't talk plain. + I wish .....
6. It doesn't shine bright. + I wish .....
7. He doesn't swim well. + I wish .....
8. He doesn't try harder. + I wish .....
9. It doesn't hang closer to the wall. + I wish .....
10. He doesn't run slowly. + I wish .....

Explain the meaning of each sentence you have written. What is the tense of each sentence? What is the time of each sentence?

27. We say that one event is contingent upon another by using if + x + -ed + Y + would + Z. For example,

If I ate ten bananas, I would be sick.

The past form of the verb follows *if*, and the next part of the sentence contains the past form of *will* which is *would*.

Some more examples:

1. If it *stung* you, arm *would* swell.
2. If he *went* to town, he *would* see the president.
3. If you *answered* him, he *wouldn't* understand.
4. If you *dug* here, you *would* find water.
5. If I *gave* you some money, you *would* waste it.

In each example above, the event referred to in the *if*-clause did not occur. None of the examples is past time. All are past *tense*. Past tense in these examples means that the situations are hypothetical; that is, they are unreal. They didn't happen. But *if* they *happened*, the result in the next clause *would* happen too.

This use of the past tense is in sharp contrast with *if* + X + verb + Y + *will* + Z. For example,

If I eat ten bananas, I will be sick.

This sentence is simply a statement of cause and effect. If X happens, then Y will happen. That is, Y is contingent upon X. This sentence does not have the negative or improbable meaning that *if* + *-ed* -sentences have. Look at the two examples together.

1. If I eat ten bananas, I will be sick.
2. If I ate ten bananas, I would be sick.

The first is a statement of fact. The second is a statement of fact and a statement of supposition. It means that I'm not going to eat ten bananas, and that I did not eat ten bananas, because to eat ten bananas will make me sick.

Read the extra examples numbered one to five above. In number two you learn that he did not go to town, but he will see the president when he goes to town. In number one you learn that it didn't sting you. We know this because your arm didn't swell. In number three you learn that answering him is a waste of time. In number four you learn where to dig. In number five you learn that I'm not going to give you any money.

Discuss the five extra examples.

28. Rewrite these contingency sentences, making them past tense. Be sure to know how each pair differs in meaning.

For example,
FACT: If Abdi plays football, he will fail algebra.
SUPPOSITION: If Abdi played football, he would fail algebra.

1. If I win the prize, I'll give you the money.
2. If I see him, I'll speak to him. —»
3. If I work hard, I'll pass the test. —»
4. If the cut bleeds, he will go to the doctor. —»
5. If you write a note, he'll deliver it. —»
6. If you pronounce clearly, everyone will understand you.—»
7. If you sweep the floor, I'll dust the furniture. —»
8. If you take an aspirin, your headache will stop. —»
9. If you repeat the question, they will answer you. —»
10. If you keep talking, he will understand you. —»
11. If you know the answer, he will hire you. —»

12. If you open the door, the dog will come in. —»
13. If you feed the birds, they will stay near your house. —»
14. If I draw his picutre, he will buy it. —»
15. If you close the door, the dog will stay out. —»
16. If you hold still, this won't hurt. —»
17. If the water flows into the lake, it will fill it soon. —»
18. If you describe the process, they will recognize it. —»
19. If you feel bad, it will be different. —»
20. If you throw the ball hard, he won't catch it. —»

•Note that the sequence of clauses in these sentences can be reversed. For example, 20 could be «He won't catch the ball if you throw it hard». The comma is omitted. Reverse all the sentences in Section 28.

29. The *modal* category of verb formatives allows us to add certain kinds of meaning to the VP. Compare these two sentences.

A. I speak Arabic.
B. I can speak Arabic.

Sentence B has the additional meaning of *futurity*. That is, «I can speak Arabic» means that I have the ability to speak Arabic and that I am probably going to speak it whenever I need to or want to. The modals without the (-ed) inflection usually refer to future time.

Here is a list of the modals.

can
could (can + -ed)
may
might (may + -ed)
shall
should (shall + -ed)
will
would (will + -ed)
must
would rather
had better

These words are similar in meaning to several verbs and combinations of words which are often used:

be able to (can)
have to (must)
ought to (should)
be supposed to (should)
be likely to (might)
would like to (want)
be going to (shall)
be about to
want to (will)
plan to
intend to (will)
hope to
expect to
need to (should)
decide to
promise to (will)

We will take up the modals and related constructions according to categories of meaning, according to:

Ability
Permission
Necessity
Obligation
Possibility
Preference
Desire
Deduction
Determination
Future

30. Ability

Compare these sentences.

1. I can speak English.
2. I could speak English if I studied it.

3. I am able to speak English.
4. I would be able to speak English if I studied it.
5. I'm going to be able to speak English next year.
6. I'm unable to speak English.

In your copybook or elsewhere write sets of sentences accordin to the models above For example,

1. I can learn Algebra.
2. I could learn algebra if I studied it.
3. I am able to learn algebra.
4. I would be able to learn algebra if I studied it.
5. I'm going to be able to learn algebra next year.
6. I'm unable to learn algebra.

1. Ali can practice tumbling. (if he had time)
2. He can try to pass the test. (if he wanted to)
3. We can give them some money. (some —» any)
4. I can write stories.
5. We can answer all the questions.
6. Amina can play the piano.
7. I can drive a car.
8. I can understand Amharic.
9. They can work hard.
10. You can find your money.

Now change the sentences of each set to the negative.

For example,

1. I can learn algebra. —» I can't learn algebra.
2. I could learn algebra if I studied it. —» I couldn't learn algebra if I studied it.
3. I am able to learn algebra. —» I'm not able to learn algebra.
4. I would be able to learn algebra if I studied it. —» I wouldn't be able to learn algebra if I studied it.

5. I'm going to be able to learn algebra next year —» I'm not going to be able to learn algebra next year.

6. I'm unable to learn algebra. —» I'm not unable to learn algebra.

All of the sentences you have written can easily be changed to YES/NO questions. First, change each sentence to an affirmative question. For example,

1. Can I learn algebra?
2. Could I learn algebra if I studied it?
3. Am I able to learn algebra?
4. Would I be able to learn algebra if I studied it?
5. Am I going to be able to learn algebra next year?
6. Am I unable to learn algebra?

Secondly, change each sentence to a negative question. For example,

1. Can't I learn algebra?
2. Couldn't I learn algebra if I studied it?
3. Am I not able to learn algebra?
4. Wouldn't I be able to learn algebra if I studied it?
5. Am I not going to be able to learn algebra next year?
6. Am I not unable to learn algebra?

The meaning of number six is somewhat tenuous. Discuss it.

What is the rule for answering negative questions? (Ignore *not).*

A very special use of *can't* is the *can't help + -ing* construction. Its meaning is *not* similar to the meaning of *help.* Compare

I can't help you finish your work.

and

I can't help eating chocolate.

This last sentence means that I an unable to avoid eating chocolate, or that I am anable to prevent my eating chocolate at every opportunity. That is I like to eat chocolate very much, but I don't want to.

Here are some further examples.

«I cant help loving her» means that I love her very much but I don't want to.

«I can't help thinking he is a fool» means that I think he is a fool, but I don't want to think that is a fool.

«I can't help limping» means that I am unable to prevent my crippled movements.

Write sentences with VPs using «I can't help.....

1. ..... working hard every day.
2. ..... singing all the time.
3. ..... eating all the time.
4. ..... studying twenty hours a day.
5. ..... staring at that strange person.
6. ..... blinking every few seconds.
7. ..... blowing my nose in class.
8. ..... sneezing.
9. ..... pretending I'm smarter than I really am.
10. ..... hiccupping after I eat.

Explain carefully the meaning of each sentence.

31. Permission

Compare these sentences.

1. You may leave the room in ten minutes.
2. You can leave the room in ten minutes.
3. You could leave the room in ten minutes if the class were finished.
4. You get to leave the room now.

In your copybook or elsewhere write sets of sentences according to the models above. For example,

1. The class may begin writing now.
2. The class can begin writing now.
3. The class could begin writing now if there were enough time remaining.
4. The class gets to begin writing now.

1. You may sharpen your pencils tomorrow.
2. You may take this book with you.
3. They may send in their applications at any time.
4. Ali may sit for the examination in June.
5. He may accept the scholarship next year.
6. We may decline his offer without penalty.
7. You may send your essays to the German Embassy.
8. They may apply for any of the new jobs.
9. Asha and Omer may live with their uncle.
10. We may take the test now or later.

Change all the sentences to the negative. For example,

1. The class may not begin writing now.
2. The class cannot begin writing now.
3. The class could not begin writing now if there were not enough time remaining.
4. The class doesn't get to begin writing now.

Change all the sentences to YES/NO questions. For example,

1. May the class begin writing now?
2. Can the class begin writing now?
3. Could the class begin writin now if there were enough time remaining?
4. Does the class get to begin writing now?

Change all the sentences to negative questions. For example,

1. May not the class begin writing now?
2. Can't the class begin writing now?
3. Couldn't the class begin writing now if there were enough time remaining?
4. Doesn't the class get to begin writing now?

What is the rule for answering negative questions?

32. Necessity

Compare these sentences.

1. You must pay the rent.
2. You have to pay the rent.
3. You had to pay the rent last week.

Had to + verb is used as the past tense form of both *must* and *have to.*

In your copybook or eleswhere write sets of sentences according to the models. For exampie,

1. You must drive your car carefully.
2. You have to drive your car carefully.
3. You had to drive your car carefully last week.

1. They must meet all my friends.
2. You must read my favorite novel.
3. You must drink a liter of milk every day.
4. He must answer the questions correctly next week.
5. They must look up the meaning of each word tomorrow.
6. He must refuse to accompany him next week.
7. We must wear our native costumes at the party.
8. You must bring your dues tomorrow.
9. I must swear to tell the whole truth at the trial.
10. You must say it has been an interesting book.

Change all the sentences to the negative. For example,

1. You must not pay the rent.
2. You don't have to pay the rent.
3. You didn't have to pay the rent.

Change all the sentences to YES/NO questions. For example,

1. Must you pay the rent?
2. Do you have to pay the rent?
3. Did you have to pay the rent?

Change all the sentences to negative questions. For example,

1. Mustn't you pay the rent?
2. Don't you have to pay the rent?
3. Didn't you have to pay the rent?

33. Obligation

Compare these sentences.

1. You should pay the rent tomorrow.
2. You ought to pay the rent tomorrow.
3. You should have paid the rent last month.
4. You ought to have paid the rent last month.
5. You had better pay the rent tomorrow.
6. You are supposed to pay the rent tomorrow.
7. You're to pay the rent tomorrow.
8. You need to pay the rent tomorrow.

Write sets of sentences according to the models above. For example,

1. You should drive your car carefully every day.
2. You ought to drive your car carefully every day.
3. You should have driven your car carefully last month.
4. You ought to have driven your car carefully last month.
5. You had better drive your car carefully tomorrow.
6. You are supposed to drive your car carefully tomorrow.
7. You're to drive your car carefully tomorrow.
8. You need to drive your car carefully tomorrow.

1. You should study hard all the time.
2. Abdi should think about his responsibilities.
3. Ali should wash his face every day.
4. Amina should be careful when she walks to scool.
5. Yusuf should pray more often.
6. We should try to improve our pronunciation.
7. They should see their teacher at ten o'clock.
8. I should be less critical of others.
9. He should pay attention in class.
10. She should learn to cook before she gets married.

Change all the sentences to YES/NO questions. For example,
Should you drive your car carefully?

Change all the sentences to the negative. For example,

You shouldn't drive your carefully.

Need forms two different phrases in the negative. We use it like a verb: «You don't need to drive your car carefully tomorrow»; or like a modal: «You need not drive your car carefully tomorrow». They mean the same. When we use *need* as a modal, we never inflect it. For example,

He need not come at six o'clock today.

Change all the sentences to negative questions. For example,

Shouldn't you drive your car carefully?

34. Possibility

Compare these sentences.

1. I might get the job if I'm lucky. (Maybe)
2. I may get the job if I'm lucky (Perhaps)
3. He may have got the job last week. (Maybe. Who knows?)
4. He might have got the job last week. (Perhaps. I don't know.)
5. I may be able to get the job when I finish school.
6. I might be able to get the job when I finish school.
7. I might have to take the job. I don't want to.
8. I may have to take the job. I don't want to.
9. I'm likely to get the job because I'm the best qualified. (Probably).

May and *might* are interchangeable when they mean *possibly*.

Write sets of sentences according to the models above

For example,

1. I might pass the test if I'm lucky.
2. I may pass test if I'm lucky.
3. I may have passed the test last week. *(Or,* He may....)
4. I might have passed the test last week.
5. I may be able to pass the test when I finish school.
6. I might be able to pass the test when I finish school.
7. I might have to pass the test in order to get the job.
8. I may have to pass the test in order to get the job.
9. I'm likely to pass the test because I'm the best qualified.

1. I might go to the United States if I'm lucky.
2. He might recover from his illness if he's lucky.
3. She might find her money if she's lucky.
4. We might think of the solution if we're lucky.
5. They might learn to spell if they're lucky.
6. Ali might be accepted by the Army if he's lucky.
7. You might get a raise in pay if you're lucky.
8. The men might find what they're looking for if they're lucky.
10. You might win the game if you're lucky.

Change all the sentences to negative questions. For example,

Mightn't I pass test if I'm lucky?

BUT

Omit all the sentences with *may.*

Change all the sentences to the negative. For example,

I might not pass the test if I'm lucky.

(This sentence presumably implies that the speaker doesn't want to pass the test).

Change all the sentences to YES/NO questions. For example,

Might I pass the test if I'm lucky?

Omit all the sentences with *may.* A question with *may* alway means that the speaker is asking for permission.

35. Preference

Compare these sentences.

1. I would rather eat steak than pasta any time.
2. I'd rather eat steak than pasta any time.
3. I prefer to eat steak rather than pasta any time.
4. I would prefer to eat steak rather than pasta any time.

Note that sentence number three refers to a *fact,* and number four refers to a *supposition.* Sentences number one and two refer to a supposition too. You can add an if-clause, which is usually understood, to them. For example, add «if I had the opportunity» to No. 1, 2, and 4.

Write sets of sentences according to the models above. For example,

1. I would rather be a colonel than a sheikh.
2. I'd rather be a colonel than a sheikh.
3. I prefer to be a colonel rather than a sheikh.
4. I would prefer to be a colonel rather than a sheikh.

1. I would rather play ball than swim.
2. He would rather study than sleep.
3. Ibrahim would rather fail than cheat.
4. Our class would rather hear a lecture than have a discussion.
5. He would rather starve than beg.
6. She would rather have money than love.
7. I would rather talk about it today than tomorrow.
8. We would rather deliver the packages now than later.
9. You would rather sink than swim.
10. They would rather be amused than challenged.

Change all the sentences to YES/NO questions. For example,

Would you rather eat steak than pasta?

Compare these two sentences:

A. I wouldn't rather eat steak than pasta.

B. I would rather not eat steak. (Pasta is irrelevant).

The second sentence means that I don't want to eat steak. That is, I prefer eating nothing to eating steak. In this sentence the verb and its complement are negative. In the first example (wouldn't rather) the modal is negative. Change all the sentences to both kinds of negatives. Discuss their differences in meaning.

Change all the sentences to two kinds of negative questions. Discuss the differences in meaning between each pair of negative questions. For example,

A. Wouldn't you rather eat steak than pasta?

B. Would you rather not eat steak?

36. Desire

Compare these sentences.

1. I would like to go to town.
2. I'd like to go to town.
3. I want to go to town.

The past morpheme in numbers one and two does not mean past time. Rather, it means the speaker is *polite*. In using *'ld* or *would* (will + -ed) he shows deference to the person he's speaking to. Politeness is a way of recognizing the other person's status or rank. In using *would*, the understood if-clause («if it is possible») is put up to the discretion of the listener, who may then deny the speaker whatever he is seeking. Usually, however, the listener complies with the speaker's request. For example, you would say «I'd like to go to town» to a person who can provide transportation (e. g., who owns a car and is going to town) or to a person from whom it is necessary to obtain permission to go to town, if you wanted to go to town.

«I want to go to town», on the other hand, is simply a statement of desire. It is not necessarily polite.

Write sets of sentences according to the models above.

For example,

1. I would like to buy a new suit.
2. I'd like to buy a new suit.
3. I want to buy a new suit.

1. I would like to ask you a few questions.
2. You would like to sell me a car.
3. He would like to hear all about your trip.
4. She would like to inspect the kitchen.
5. We would like to stay for a day or two.
6. They would like to work until three o'clock.
7. Ali would like to bring his brother to class.
8. The teachers would like to take a vacation.
9. The headmaster would like to become a soldier.
10. I would like to forget about our friendship.

Change all the sentences to YES/NO questions.

I —» you, and you (-M) —» me. (-M) is the object morpheme. For example,

Would you like to buy a new suit?

This question is polite. Compare, «Do you want to buy a new suit?»

There are two sorts of negatives possible in these sentences. Compare

A. I wouldn't like to buy a new suit.

B. I would like not to buy a new suit.

In the second sentence the speaker is in a situation where he must buy a new suit, and he doesn't like the situation.

Change all the sentences to both kinds of negatives. Discuss the differences in meaning between each pair.

37. Deduction

Read this paragraph carefully.

1. I saw your brother at the hospital this morning. He was lying in bed. He must be sick.

We use *must* to mean that we are making a deduction from a syllogism.

2. I saw your brother at the hospital last week. He was lying in bed. He must have been sick.

In number two, (modal) + (have + en) refers to past time. Here the perfect formative is used to refer to past time. This is an exception. Number three, on the other hand, refers to future time.

3. I saw your brother at the hospital this morning. He is in bed. He must be going to have an operation.

The circumstances in each example above enable you to determine why your brother is in the hospital. *Must* means that you are deducing the reasons why the circumstances obtain.

Write sets of sentences according to the models above. Omit the future time sentences unless they are easy and logical.

1. I can see dark clouds in the valley. It must be raining there. (I could see dark clouds in the valley this morning. It must have ..... I can see dark clouds in the valley. It must be going to rain there).

2. Our answers are not identical. One of our answers must be incorrect.

3. I saw your father driving a car today. He must have a driver's license.
4. All the students are leaving the classrooms. It must be time for lunch.
5. Your sister is the best student in her class. She must be very intelligent.
6. I have never been to Hargeisa. You must be mistaken.
7. It's dark outside. It must be later than six o'clock.
8. I can't open the door I must have the wrong key.
9. My socks are different colors. I must have on a mixed pair.
10. This isn't my book. You must have mine.

In order to transform these sentences into negatives, we must change the circumstances. For example, number one:

1. I saw your brother at the hospital this morning. He was singing and telling jokes. He must *not* be sick. (..... last night ..... He must not have been sick) (He must not be going to have an operation).

Complete these paragraphs, changing the *must* VP of the original to the negative.

1. I can't see any dark clouds in the valley. It must not .....
2. Our answers are identical. One of our answers must not....
3. I saw your father driving a car today. He was driving recklessly. He must not .....
4. All the students are still in the classrooms. It must not....
5. Your sister is the worst student in her class. She must not ......
6. I've lived in Hargeisa all my life. You must not .....
7. It's not dark outside yet. It must not .....
8. I can open the door. I must not .....
9. My socks are the same colors. I must not .....
10. This is my book. You must not . ...

Change each sentence with *must* to a question. For example,

1. Must it be raining there?
2. Must it have been raining there?
3. Must it be going rain there?

38. Determination

Compare these sentences.

1. I will go tomorrow if you pay me the money.
2. I'll go tomorrow if you pay me the money.
3. I'm going to go tomorrow if you pay me the money.
4. I would go tomorrow if you paid me the money.

These sentences have to do with the subject's *will,* that is, with his desire or determination to do something. Of course, they refer to future time.

Write sets of sentences according to the models above.

1. I will sleep late tomorrow if I get finished.
2. He will teach at ten o'clock tomorrow if he arrives on time.
3. We will eat dinner tomorrow when you arrive.
4. They will wear their uniforms if they must.
5. She will buy the tickets if you insist.
6. I will work hard from now on if you think it is worthwhile.
7. Ali will expect you to give him some of the money if you ask him to help.
8. They will get finished first if they start now.
9. Amina will drive my car, if you go now.
10. I will bring my rackets if you want to play tennis.

Change each of the sentences you wrote to the negative.

For example,

1. I will not go tomorrow if you pay me the money.
2. I won't go tomorrow if you pay me the money.
3. I'm not going to go tomorrow if you pay me the money.
4. I wouldn't go tomorrow if you paid me the money.
   Notice number one and two.

Change each sentence to a YES/NO question. For example,

1. Will you go tomorrow if I pay you the money?)
) N.B.
2. Will you go tomorrow if I pay you the money?)
3. Are you going to go tomorrow if I pay you the money?
4. Would you go tomorrow if I paid you the money?

Change each sentence to a negative question. For example,

1. Will you not go tomorrow if I pay you the money?
2. Won't you go tomorrow if I pay you the money?
3. Aren't you going to go tomorrow if I pay you the money?
4. Wouldn't you go tomorrow if I paid you the money?

How do you answer these questions?

39. Future

Compare these sentences

1. I'm about to get you a cup of tea.
2. Shall I get you a cup of tea?
3. I'm not about to get you a cup of tea.
4. I'm not going to get you a cup of tea.
5. I'll get you a cup of tea in a moment. (I promise).

To be about to means that the subject is on the verge of doing something, that the next thing he subject is going to do is the *verb.*

Shall is usually used only in questions. It is a polite word for asking about what the person addressed wants. Compare:

1. Shall I get your coat?
2. Shall we dance?
3. Shall we go in to dinner now?
4. Shall I pour you another drink?
5. Shall I take this letter to the minister?

To be not about to means that the subject refuses to do something. Compare.

1. I'm not about to give you any money.
2. He's not about to tell you the answers.
3. We're not about to let you go now.
4. He's not about to forget this insult.

Write sentences according to the models. Omit sentences with *shall.*

1. I'm about to leave now.
2. He's about to bleed to death.
3. Ali's about to spend a lot of money.

4. Amina's about to lose a good friend.
5. We're about to call on our friends.
6. They are about to swim across the English Channel.
7. He's about to begin teaching.
8. I'm about to look up the word now.
9. You're about to win the game.
10. The class is about to run out of time.

Try to think of several situations in which you can use *shall.*

For example,

1. Shall we begin to pray now?
2. Shall I wait for you outside? *Etc.*

Change the sentences you wrote with *will* to the negative.

For example,

1. I won't get you a cup of tea in a moment.
2. I won't give you any money.
3. I won't tell you the answers.

Make negative questions of the sentences you wrote.

For example,

1. Are you not about to get me a cup of tea?
   (Aren't you about to get me a cup of tea?)
2. Shall I not get you a cup of tea?
   (Shan't I get you a cup of tea?)
3. Are you not about to get me a cup of tea?
   (Aren't you about to get me a cup of tea?)
4. Are you not going to get me a cup of tea?
   (Aren't you going to get me a cup of tea?)
5. Will you not get me a cup of tea in a moment?
   (Won't you get me a cup of tea in a moment?)

Notice that the contraction + *not* gives a different word order from the whole words + *not.* These sentences without the contraction are unusual, but possible.

40. Here are many questions with *modals*. Answer each question with a short answer. Then discuss each question and decide exactly what it means and when you should use it.

For example,

Can I get you a drink?

Yes, you can.

See Section 31. *Can* in this sentence is a polite word meaning *may*.

Answer these questions. What do they mean? When would you ask them?

1. May I get you a drink?
2. Could I get you a drink?
3. Should I get you a drink?
4. Must I get you a drink?
5. Do you have to smoke in class?
6. Could you stop smoking?
7. Would you rather be a sheikh or a colonel?
8. Would you like to sit down?
9. Will you have a piece of candy?
10. Would you have a piece of candy?
11. Shall I call you up this afternoon?
12. Would you mind if I smoked?
13. Are you about to leave?
14. Did you use to smoke?
15. Is he supposed to arrive today?
16. Is he to arrive at six o'clock?
17. Should you have written that check?
18. Must he be the one who did it? (deduction)
19. Is he likely to catch cold?
20. Did you have to go to jail?
21. Ought he to have done it?
22. Will you be the one to do it?
23. Would you please go jump in the lake?

24. Could I persuade you to lend me some money?
25. Are you able to walk?
26. Can you smile?
27. Could you smile if you were happy?
28. Could you behave yourself?
29. Can you help loving me?
30. Do you get to play on the team?
31. Would you please sit down?
32. Aren't you likely to get sick eating so much?
33. Hadn't you better not do that?
34. Did he have to sell his car?
35. Might I be the winner?
36. Shall I die because a woman's fair?
37. Would you like to taste this ice cream?
38. Shall I give you a lift?
39. Would you rather walk?
40. Are you about to swear off smoking?

41. Read Section 29 again now. A frequently used sentence-type is one which contrasts the meanings conveyed by the modals by using the conjunction *but*. For example,

I can't go to school today, *but* I ought to.

This compound sentence comes from «I can't go to school today.» + But + «I ought to go to school today».

We usually delete the verb + X of the second sentence.

Memorize the following sentences. Be sure you know what they mean.

1. I can't go, but I'd like to.
2. I can't go, but I want to.
3. I can't go, but I need to.
4. I can't go today, but I promise to tomorrow.
5. I can't go, but I ought to.
6. I can't go, but I'm supposed to.

Substitute *might not* for *can't* in the above sentences.

Memorize these sentences. Stress *còuld.*

1. I còuld go, but I shouldn't. (*If* ..... is understood).
2. I còuld go, but I might not.
3. I còuld go, but I would rather not.
4. I còuld go, but I had better not.
5. I còuld go, but I don't have to.
6. I còuld go, but I'm not supposed to.
7. I còuld go, but I'm not likely to.
8. I còuld go, but I wouldn't like to.
9. I còuld go, but I'm not going to.
10. I còuld go, but I'm not about to.
11. I còuld go, but I don't want to.
12. I còuld go, but I don't plan to.
13. I còuld go, but I don't intend to.
14. I còuld go, but I don't expect to.
15. I còuld go, but I don't need to.

Now substitute *might* for *could* in the above sentences. Omit No. 2, 9. and 10. Why?

Substitute *should* for *could* in the sentences. Omit No. 1, 4, and 6. Why?

Memorize these sentences. Exactly what do they mean?

1. I must go, but I would rather not.
2. I must go, but I can't.
3. I must go, but I'm not able to.
4. I must go, but I'm not supposed to.
5. I must go, but I don't want to.

Substitute *have to* for *must* in the above sentences. The speaker in these sentences is frustrated. Can you explain how?

42. Write a substitution exercise using the medal words.

He didn't go, but he hopes to.

He didn't go, but he wants to.

Intend: He didn't go, but he intends to.

1. *plan.*
2. *might:* (Omit *to)*
3. *expect:*
4. *should:* (Omit *to)*
5. *could:* (Omit *to)*
6. *ought:*
7. *has to:*
8. *want:*
9. *might:*
10. *might decide:*
11. *must:*
12. *hope:*
13. *need:*
14. *try:*
15. *would like:*
16. *should:*
17. *expect:*
18. *might:*
19. *could:*
20. *shòuld have:*

All of the sentences except No. 20 refer to future time. The use of *have* in No. 20 shows that we refer to the past time when he didn't go. The correct form of sentence No. 20 is this.

He didn't go, but he should have.

This comes from:

1. He didn't go. + But.
2. He should have gone.

«He should have gone» is NP + VP:

VP —» modal + have + (en) + verb.

Have + (-en) is called the perfect formative. See Section 13..

The perfect usually refers to present time, except when it is used with a past (ed) morpheme or a modal, as in the example above. These particular modals contain past morphemes. Their containing past morphemes is an accident of history which sometimes causes confusion. It makes students think that the perfect refers to past time alone. We know, however, that the perfect refers to both past and present time.

43. To make the sentences in the exercise in Section 42 all refer to past time it is necessary to change all the VPs following *but* to contain an (-ed) morpheme or a modal + have (with -en + verb deleted).

Change all the sentences in Section 42. For example,

He didn't go, but he hoped to.
He didn't go, but he wanted to.
He didn't go, but he intended to.
He didn't go, but he planned to.
He didn't go, but he might have.

The past form of *ought,* No. 6, is *ought. Might decide* —» might have decided to.

44. Sequence of Modals

General we may add together any modal word and *have to, be able to,* or the verbs like *want.* We can say, for example,

I may be able to go.
I may decide to go.
I should have to go.
I shall be able to go.
I will be able to go.
I had better be able to go.
I have to promise to go.
I'm supposed to be able to go.
I'd like to be able to go.
I want to be able to go.

I may have to go.
I might be able to go.
I should want to go.
I will want to go.
I would be able to if .....
I had better decide to go.
I ought to be able to go.
I'm likely to have to go.
I'm going to have to go.
I'm going to be able to go.

Some words we add to modals are:

1. (to) be able to
2. (to) have to
3. (to) want, plan, expect, intend, hope, etc.

To be able to means the same as what?

To have to means the same as what?

We sometimes expand the modal part of the VP this way:

be able to
modal + have to + verb
want, *etc.*, to

Write a substitution exercise.

I may decide to go.

1. might:
2. need: (I might need)
3. We:
4. be able: (might be able)
5. have to:
6. want: (might want)
7. Ali:
8. will:
9. He:
10. have to:
11. be able:
12. expect:
13. need:
14. want:
15. should: (should want)
16. be able:
17. must:
18. would: (if .....)
19. had better:
20. ought to:

Now practice these sentences, substituting many different subjects, modals, and verbs for those you have written. For example, change *go* to *buy a new sweater* or *study hard.*

45. Read Sections 21 and 22 again. Discuss them.

46. The perfect formative consists of (have) + (-en) + verb. The tense morpheme is added to (have) if we need show past tense to refer to past time or to a hypothetical situation. However, the perfect formative alone refers not to past, but to *present* time. This present time is informed by the past. That is, something occurred in the past which is now relevant to what we are talking about.

For example,

I study mathematics now.

and I studied mathematics last year for the first time.

So, I have studied mathematics for a year NOW.

The perfect formative refers both to past time and to present time at the same time.

Explain what happened in the past to cause these situations. Remember that the situations continue *now*.

1. I have run out of petrol just now.
2. We have given out all the texts already.
3. I have gotten along with them all year.
4. I've already broken in these new shoes.
5. He has looked it up in the encyclopedia five times.
6. Someone has stolen my money.
7. You have broken your promise already.
8. I have been awake since four o'clock.
9. So far this project has cost too much money.
10. I have had a bad cold a week.

What are the past participles, the (-en) forms of verbs, in these ten sentences?

47. The Time Line

Time in English proceeds from left to right.

Common Time or
The Past «— Now The Future —»

↑ Before the Past ↑ Before the Future

Compare the verb formatives relative to the time line.

The perfect formative refers to the past and now at the same time.

We can add the past morpheme to the perfect formative.

For example,

I had studied mathematics before I came here.

(-ed) + (have) + (-en) + verb: —» had studied.

This combination is called the *past perfect.* We use it to refer *only* to events or situations which occurred *before* another event or situation which occurred in the past. The event which occurred before the past is relevant to the past event. You might call it the past-past.

Change these sentences to contain past perfect VPs. Add the clause «before I came to this school». For example,

I have studied mathematics for a year now. —»

I had studied mathematics for a year before I came to this school.

1. I have gotten along with the students all year. —»
2. He stole my money. —»
3. I have been sick for a year. —»
4. I have made many mistakes. —»
5. I have learned to study hard. —»
6. I have promised to be responsible for myself. —»
7. I taught in an intermediate school —»
8. I played professional football. —»
9. I neglected my studies. —»
10. I acted as though all girls were superior students. —»

48. Rewrite all the sentences in Section 47, including the word *already.* To do this you must use the perfect formative.

For example,

I have already studied mathematics for a year now.

49. Change the sentences in Section 47 to the negative, using the word *yet.* For example,

I haven't studied mathematics yet.

50. Rewrite the sentences in Section 47, changing each sentence to the negative and past perfect, using the «before» clause.

For example,

I hadn't studied mathematics for a year before I came to this school.

51. Change *I* to *you*. Rewrite Sections 47, 48, 48, 49, and 50, changing each sentence to a question. For example,

Had you studied mathematics for a year before you came to this school?

Have you already studied mathematics for a year now?

Haven't you studied mathematics for a year yet?

Hadn't you studied mathematics for a year before you came to the school?

52. Read Sections 23, 26, and 27 again. **You will remember that** *if* causes the verb to add the (-ed) morpheme if the situation is hypothetical. Compare these sentences.

A. If I sell my horse before the end of the year, I will give you some money.

If I sold my horse before the end of the year, I would give you some money.

Which of these sentences suggests that I am not going to sell my horse?

B. If I have sold my horse before the end of the year, I will give you some money.

If I sell my horse before the end of the year, I will give you some money.

These two sentences above mean the same.

What *time* do these sentences refer to? (future) Do they have past morphemes in them?

C. If I had sold my horse before the end of last year, I would have given you some money.

Did I sell my horse last year? Does this sentences have a past morpheme in it? Two past morphemes? How many past participles are in it?

D. If I hadn't sold my horse before the end of last year, I wouldn't have given you any money then.

Did I sell my horse? Did I give you some money?

If requires one past morpheme whenever it refers to a hypothetical situation. The accompaying modal (will) also adds one past morpheme.

53. Change the following sentences to the past perfect.

For example,

I didn't give him the money. + if.
He wasn't happy. —»

If I had given him the money, he would have been happy.

1. We didn't hear the command. +
   We were not successful. —»
2. I didn't meet him in Rome. +
   We didn't go to the theatre. —»
3. I didn't sleep too late. +
   I didn't miss the plane. —»
4. They didn't bring the books. +
   We couldn't sing those songs. —»
5. We didn't sell our cattle. +
   We didn't go to school last year —»
6. Ali didn't write the application himself. +
   The principal didn't accept him. —»
7. I didn't pronounce the words correctly. +
   The king didn't understand me. —»
8. The teacher didn't explain the process. +
   The students didn't understand it. —»
9. Mohamud didn't speak loudly. +
   Faduma didn't hear him. —»
10. I didn't spend much money on my family. +
    I didn't get along with them. —»

54. Change the sentences you wrote in Section 53 to the negative. For example,

If I hadn't given him the money, he wouldn't have been happy.

This sentence means:

1. I gave him the money.	But suppose these
2. He was happy.	were not true.

Explain the meaning of each sentence this way.

55. Remember that *wish* takes a mandatory past morpheme in the verb of the complementary clause. For example,

I wish I had a million shillings.

This means: I don't have a million shillings, and I want a million shillings. It past tense, but not past....... (?).

Whenever a sentence with *wish* refers to past time, it is necessary to use the perfect formative with an -ed morpheme for this function. As you know, the perfect ordinarily refers to common or future or past *and* present time. It helps sentences with *wish* refer to past time by carrying the past morpheme. For example,

I wish I *had had* a million shillings last year.

This means: I didn't have a million shillings last year, and I want something impossible now. Something impossible now is that I had a million shillings last year. Usually we can continue such fantasy with, for example: If I had had a million shillings last year, I would have gone to Canada to visit my brother.

Change the sentences in Section 53 to *wish*-sentences.

For example,

We didn't hear the command. —» I wish we had heard the command.

He wasn't happy. —» I wish he had been happy.

I didn't give him the money. —» I wish I had given him the money.

Explain the circumstances under which you would use each sentence if you had the occasion to use it.

56. Change each sentence in Section 55 which you wrote to the negative. For example,

I wish I hadn't given him the money.

I wish he hadn't been happy.

Explain the meaning and use of each sentence. For example.

«I wish I hadn't given him the money» means that I gave him the money, and now I'm sorry.

Read Section 47 again now.

57. Whenever the past perfect refers to something which happened before something else in the past, for example:

I *had* obtained a license before I *bought* the car.

and the sentence is used as an *if*-clause or the complement of a *wish*-sentence, you might think that, because *if* and *wish* co-occur with past morphemes and because the past perfect requires one past morpheme, such a sentence with *wish* and the past perfect would have two past morphemes. This is not the case. English VPs have only one past morpheme in them at one time. So, the example above + wish —»

I wish I had obtained a license before I bought the car.

This sentence means: I didn't obtain a license before I bought the car, and now I'm sorry

Or, similarly, as an if-clause, this sentence becomes:

If I had obtained a license before I bought the car, I would have been able to drive it sooner.

This sentence means that I didn't obtain a license before I bought the car and I was not able to drive it as soon as I wanted to.

58. Rewrite the sentences in Section 50, changing each to the complement of *wish*. For example,

I wish I hadn't studied mathematics for a year before I came to this school.

The change each sentence in Section 50 to be part of an *if*-clause, adding the result-clause «I wouldn't have come to this school.» For example,

If hadn't studied mathematics, I wouldn't have come to this school.

(This example means I studied mathematics and I came to this school. Which did I do first?)

59. The perfect formative can be used in sentences which refer to future time. For example,

I will have finished writing this letter before three o'clock.

This sentence means that at three o'clock in the future I will be able to look back at the time in the past (which is now in the future) when I finished this letter. Remember that the perfect refers to two points in time. The two points in time in the example are three o'clock and the moment when I finish writing the letter.

Write a substitution exercise using «will have»» and «by then». *By then* refers to a previously determined time in the future. It is a very common expression.

I will have finished the test by then.

1. completed:
2. We:
3. the course:
4. George:
5. pass:
6. fail:

7. the examination:
8. write:
9. erase:
10. memorize:

Asha will have met her in Rome by then.

1. see:
2. visit:
3. New York:
4. leave:
5. Abdi:
6. call on:
7. call up:
8. write:
9. remember:
10. need:

60. The progressive formative, BE + -ing, has several uses. See Section 15.

The most common use of the progressive formative is to signal the difference between progressive and specific time.

Verbs which refer to states-of-mind usually refer to general time, or to a timeless situation --- one where time is not important. For instance, the verb KNOW doesn't need any time-words to accompany it. Whenever we say, for instance, «I know how to read Arabic», we refer to general time. We don't use the progressive formative with such verbs. Examples of such verbs are: need, remember, desire, know, like, want, prefer, mean, think, understand, forget.

Specific time, on the other hand, is necessary whenever we compare the occurrence of two actions relative to each other.

For example,

I was talking about Caesar when you interrupted me.

I was talking: a progressive, longer period
You interrupted me: a specific happening

Or: What were you doing when you learned about the President's death?

..... you were doing .....
... you learned about .....

Combine the following pairs of sentences with *when.*

For example,

A. I was crossing the street. +
B. A taxi hit me. —»

I was crossing the street when a taxi hit me.

1. You were building a fire. +
It started to rain. —»

2. He was getting up. +
The house caught fire. —»

3. We were looking out for our friends. +
A thief stole Ali's wallet. —»

4. I was calling on the Captain.. +
He received an urgent call. —»

5. I was studying my biology. +
You stopped to chat. —»

6. Asha was cooking breakfast. +
She learned the good news. —»

7. We were going to Hargeisa. +
We saw a kudu. —»

8. The teacher was giving out the textbooks. +
I arrived at the class room. —»

9. Yusuf was putting up the encyclopedias. +
A book fell and hit him on the foot. —»

10. A robber was breaking in to our house. +
We got home. —»

161. The word *while* means «during a period of time». *When,* on the other hand, means «at a specific time». Observe these examples:

A taxi hit me while I was crossing the street.

I was crossing the street when a taxi hit me.

A taxi hit me when I was crossing the street.

* I was crossing the street while a taxi hit me. *

The fourth example is impossible. A rule which you can derive from these examples is:

while + X + (-ing).

That is, *while* is always followed by (-ing) in the VP.

Change each pair of sentences in Section 60 to include *while*.

For example,

You interrupted me while I was talking about Caesar.

62. A few verbs seldom occur with the progressive formative. In order to practice using the most common ones, write this substitution exercise.

I am playing tennis now.

1. like: (I like to play tennis).
2. make a mistake: AM
3. want some money:
4. meet my friends: AM
5. prefer:
6. fight for his election: AM
7. prefer:
8. mean what I say:
9. understand:
10. think you are wrong:
11. bring my friends: AM
12. need:
13. remember:
14. know:
15. describe: AM
16. drive a bus: AM
17. want to drive a bus:
18. want to throw that ball:
19. know how:
20. desire:

63. The progressive is often used to refer to future time. For example,

I'm going to Mogadiscio tomorrow.
I'm flying to Hargeisa tomorrow.

Write a substitution exercise using these sentences:

I'm leaving school tomorrow.

1. go away:
2. go to Aden:
3. play ball:
4. repair my car:
5. make a cake:
6. get up at five o'clock:
7. call on my cousin:
8. return to Brava:
9. practice my speech:
10. visit my relatives:
11. wear my new suit:
12. get a new car:
13. drive to Merca:
14. ride with you:
15. write him a letter:
16. take the examination:
17. run in the track meet:
18. begin the new course:
19. leave town:
20. hold an inquest:

64. Change the sentences in Section 63 to the negative, then change them to ordinary yes/no questions using «Are you.....».

65. The sentences in Section 60 can contain «I wish». The co-occurrence restriction on *wish* is that there must be a past tense morpheme in the VP. So these past progressive VPs must change this way:

I was talking about Caesar when you interrupted me. —»

I wish I had been talking about Caesar when you interrupted me.

Or, the past VPs must change:

I wish you had interrupted me while I was talking about Caesar.

Write twenty sentences with *I wish* -- two for each pair in Section 60. For example,

A. I wish I had been crossing the street when a taxi hit me.

B. I wish a taxi had hit me while I was crossing the street.

What do these sentences mean? In A, did a taxi hit me? Where was I when the taxi hit me? Discuss the sentences you write.

66. The modal progressive formatives refer to future time.

For example,

A. I will be talking about Caesar when you interrupt me.
The speaker of this sentence predicts the future.
Or,

B. You will interrupt me while I'm talking about Caesar.

Note that *interrupt* in A and *I'm* in B are not inflected with the past morpheme.

Change the sentences in Section 60 to the modal progressive form. For example,

I will be crossing the street when a taxi hits me.

Then change each sentence to contain *while*. For example,

A taxi will hit me while I'm crossing the street.

Try substituting other modal words for *will* in the sentences you write. How do the meanings change when you substitute *might*, *can*, and *must*?

67. The past modals are *could, should,* and *would*. Each of these words contains a past morpheme. They can, however, refer to future time. In these examples the past morpheme is required by the *if-clause* which expresses a hypothetical situation, and which may or may not be expressed. That is, the *if-clause* may be understood, but not said:

A. I could be talking about Caesar when you interrupt me tomorrow (if you preferred it).

B. I should be talking about Caesar when you interrupt me tomorrow (if we planned it right).

C. I would be talking about Caesar when you interrupt me tomorrow (if you wanted it that way).

Compare these sentences. The if-clauses here express cause and effect.

A. I can be talking about Caesar when you interrupt me tomorrow (if you prefer it).

B. I shall be talking about Caesar when you interrupt me tomorrow (if we plan it right).

C. I will be talking about Caesar when you interrupt me tomorrow (if you want it that way).

Write this substitution exercise.

I will be studying my Latin when you stop to chat tomorrow.

1. might:
2. shall:
3. can:
4. could:
5. should:
6. would:
7. might:

Do you know when to use these sentences?

68. When we add the perfect formative to the modal progressive, we get a sentence which refers to a future time and to the period of time before it. For example,

In 1980 I will have been studying English for fifteen years.

This means perhaps that the speaker began studying English in 1965, and at the future date of 1980 he will still be studying English, and he will have been studying it during those fifteen years.

Write modal perfect progressive VPs for these situations.

1. I came to Benadir in 1950. I live in Benadir now. In 1979.....
2. I spend 1000 shillings a year for water. I began buying water in 1962. In 1980.....
3. I began building my house in 1965. I'm still building it. In 1970 .....
4. I get along with my mother-in-law. I have got along with her for twenty years, since 1947. In 1977 .....
5. I always use Colgate toothpaste. I have used Colgate toothpaste since 1940. In 1990.

69. We can change the modal perfect progressive VPs to past tense whenever there is a hypothetical situation, or if the situation is in past time. For example,

In 1960 I would have been studying English for fifteen years if I had started studying it in 1945. (But I didn't).

I would have been studying my lesson when you came in if I had known what to study. (I didn't know what to study).

But after *wish,* we prefer to say:

I wish I had been studying my lesson when you came in, but I didn't know what to study. (I wasn't studying it).

Sometimes, however, you will hear .....

I wish I would have been studying my lesson when you came in, but I didn't know what to study.

..... but most educated speakers of English consider this construction substandard.

Similarly, after *if:*

If I had been studying my lesson when you came in, I would have helped you with yours.

So, would + X + (-ing) does not occur in the same VP with *wish* or *if.*

Write some sentences for these situations. For example,

I didn't begin to live in Benadir in 1950. I don't live there now. I would have been living in Benadir for seventeen years if I had come to Benadir in 1950.

These situations are continuous events which are signailed by the progressive formative.

1. I didn't begin building my house in 1960. I'm not building it now. I would ..... (if).
2. I didn't begin buying water 1962. I'm not buying it now. I would .....
3. I didn't begin getting along with my mother-in-law in 1947 I don't get along with her now. I would .....
4. I didn't begin using Colgate toothpaste in 1940. I don't use it now. I would .....
5. I didn't start going to school in 1945. I don't go to school now. I would .....
6. I didn't begin working for the government in 1960. I don't work for the government now. I would .....
7. I didn't go to sleep at midnight last night. I'm not sleeping now. I would .....

8. I didn't plan to visit Egypt in 1960. I don't plan to visit it now. I would .....

9. I didn't begin driving a bus in 1959. I don't drive a bus now. I would .....

10. I didn't begin studying Arabic in 1966. I don't study Arabic now. I would .....

70. The passive formative involves a shift of focus from the true subject of the sentence to the Direct Object of the verb. Sometimes the object is more important to us than the subject, especially when we don't know who or what the subject refers to. For example,

«The book is completed,»
comes from «X completed the book,»

«This house was built in 1910,»
comes from «X built this house in 1910.»

«The treaty was signed on April 10,»
comes from «X signed the treaty on April 10.»

In each case above the important thing is the first element in the sentence, and these elements are objects of verbs whose subjects are relatively unimportant.

Passive —» BE + (-en) + verb

Compare:

Abdi was shot by a policeman.

A policeman shot Abdi.

Both of these sentences mean the same. Notice that the phrase «by a policeman» tells *who* shot Abdi. If we want to include the true subject in a passive VP we do it with a *by* phrase.

Change these sentences to the passive. For example,

Children eat candy. —» Candy is eaten by children.

1. People spend money. —»
2. Thieves steal money. —»
3. People break promises. —»
4. Boys prefer baseball. —»
5. Everyone needs help. —»
6. We expect gratitude —»
7. We return favors. —»
8. Teachers answer questions. —»
9. Students learn languages. —»
10. People ride horses. —»

71. Change each of the passive sentences in Section 70 to a yes/no question, to a negative statement, to a negative question, and then add a tag question to each.

72. All of the other VP formatives can be added to the passive.

For example.

1. + past: This house *was* built in 1911.
2. + modal: This house will be built in 1880.
3. + perfect: This house has been built for 50 years.
4. + progressive: This house is being built.
5. + past modal: This house would be built if we had enough money.
6. + past perfect: This house had been built before the war.
7. + past progressive: This house was being built when you first came here.
8. + modal perfect: This house will have been built for sixty years in 1971.
9. + modal progressive: This house will be being built when you arrive tomorrow.
10. + perfect progressive: This house has been being built for two years.

Etc.

Here are some good sample sentences using the passive formative and the past formative:

1. This floor was swept an hour ago.
2. My questions were answered immediately.
3. The baby was bitten when he was six months old.
4. The animals were fed before dawn.
5. The deposit was found in 1935.
6. The war was fought in the spring.
7. The channel was swum seven times last year.
8. Grapes were grown here in the 1800s.
9. Your pants were torn before you got up to speak.
10. What he said was forgotten very soon.

73. Change the ten sentences in Section 72 to include a modal formative.

74. Change the ten sentences in Section 72 to include a perfect formative.

75. Change the sentences in Section 72 to include a progressive formative.

76. Change the sentences in Section 72 to include past-modal formatives.

77. Change the sentences in Section 72 to include past-perfect formatives.

78. Change the sentences in Section 72 to include past-progressive formatives.

79. Change the sentences in Section 72 to include modal-perfect formatives.

80. Change the sentences in Section 72 to include modal-progressive formatives.

81. Change the sentences in Section 72 to include perfect-progressive formatives.

82. Change all the sentences in Sections 72, 73, 74, 75, 76, 77, 78, 79, 80, and 81 to the negative.

83. Change all the sentences in Sections 72 to 81 to yes/no questions.

84. Change all the sentences in Sections 72 to 81 to negative questions.

85. Change all the sentences in Sections 72 to 81 to include tag-questions, both affirmative and negative. For example,

This house was built in 1911, wasn't it?

This house wasn't built in 1911, was it?